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## Teacher Personnel

Reviews the literature for the three-year period since the issuance of Volume XIII, No. 3, June 1943.

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This issue of the REVIEW was prepared  
by the Committee on Teacher Personnel

ARVIL S. BARR, *Chairman, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin*  
EARL W. ANDERSON, *Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio*  
LEO M. CHAMBERLAIN, *University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky*  
DENNIS H. COOKE, *George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville,*  
*Tennessee*  
WESLEY E. PEIK, *University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota*

with the assistance of

JAMES ALLEN	HAZEL DAVIS	RICHARD B. THIEL
CLIFFORD P. ARCHER	HARL R. DOUGLASS	MAURICE E. TROYER
JESSE F. CARDWELL	STEPHEN ROMINE	ROBERT C. WOELLNER
HARRIS J. DARK	HENRY LESTER SMITH	WILLIAM E. YOUNG

## FOREWORD

**T**HIS is the sixth issue to review research on teacher personnel. The chapter headings of this issue correspond almost identically with those of the preceding issue. This correspondence makes it easy to trace the trends of research in teacher personnel. But a casual perusal of the five preceding issues raises the question as to whether research in the field of teacher personnel may not be the victim of self-complacency.

This issue reviews hundreds of publications and its authors admit having examined other hundreds not included in the review. They cover three years of the most crucial period in the history of the United States, yet from the materials presented, one gains no new insight into the purpose or function of the teaching profession, no feeling of urgency for reform, no vision of the new role of the teacher in building a new world, no challenge to research in teacher education.

The facts of teacher shortages are recorded. The need for higher salaries is noted. Married women have returned to the classroom but there appears no conviction as to whether they should remain. Here and there an isolated bit of research throws new light on such problems as supply and demand, recruitment, selection, salaries, tenure, pensions, certification, and legal status of teachers. Here and there is a suggestion of new research needed, but nowhere does the suggestion cut thru the patterns long established.

Frequent reference is made to publications of the Commission on Teacher Education but the reader finds little to suggest that the Commission questioned patterns of established thought or challenged the profession to new and fundamental research into the problems of teacher personnel.

The teacher in the classroom of the schools and colleges of the United States holds the key to the future of this country and of the United Nations. Problems ahead call for new vision, for fundamental and far-reaching research. Is not the time at hand for breaking new ground?

J. CAYCE MORRISON, *Chairman,*  
*Editorial Board*

## CHAPTER I

### Supply and Demand in Teaching

EARL W. ANDERSON and REUBEN H. ELIASSEN

**R**EPORTS dealing with teacher supply and demand published during the years 1943, 1944, and 1945 included two doctors' dissertations (29, 57), one nationwide investigation (36), one regional study (65), seven state studies (1, 19, 23, 29, 56, 67, 76), many reports of state departments of education, estimates of future shortage (33, 52, 56, 57, 64, 89), and remedies tried or recommended (26, 68, 69). Several reports were limited to one specific area of teaching such as college (3, 4), secondary (78), elementary (7, 12, 62), rural (86, 95), industrial arts (13), home economics (23), physical education (33), vocational agriculture (32), and preschool (80). Considerable attention was given to the immediate effects of the war on teacher supply and demand (8, 9, 25, 42, 58, 93, 96). Extensive state surveys were reported in Georgia (1), California (56), Iowa (23), and Missouri (29). An investigation in 1945 by Elder (36) was based upon current reports from thirty-seven state departments of education. A regional study covering nineteen states was made by Maul (65) for the North Central Association. Mead and his associates investigated technics of meeting teacher shortage (26, 68, 69).

#### The Current Situation

During each of the three years covered shortages of teachers in all fields were revealed, increasing in seriousness each year (39). In 1943, the areas taught by men had the greatest shortages; in 1944 and 1945, the elementary schools were most critically affected. This situation was accentuated by the decided increase in the number of children attending the lower elementary school grades. The end of the war brought some men back to high-school teaching, even creating occasional temporary surpluses, but other veterans took wives or sweethearts out of school positions, especially the elementary ones, immediately upon their return to civilian life. The rural schools had greater shortages each year than did urban districts (38, 39, 93, 94).

#### Causes of the Teacher Shortage

The draft, the pull of war industries, and the appeal of the armed forces were listed often as major causes of teacher shortage; relatively low salaries were noted almost universally as a basic reason. By 1944 some 280,000 had left teaching since Pearl Harbor; that year one teacher in seven was new to his position (42). More than a dozen reporters cited the great drop in the number enrolled in teacher preparation courses (13, 38, 42, 94). In



1945, since the close of the war, it was noted that former teachers were not returning rapidly to their instructional duties (1, 65); that a number of emergency teachers brought back to help out in the crisis had left the schools shortly after the war ended; and that teachers' salaries, which were increased materially during and since the war period, did not attract many former teachers. In many cases those returning from service in the armed forces sought nonteaching employment or attended college.

Reported losses in school effectiveness caused by the teacher shortage included: expansion of circuit teaching, several hundred thousand pupils without teachers, classes enlarged beyond the point of efficiency, teachers overworked, almost no men left in the schools (93, 96), increased restlessness among teachers and pupils (5, 98), teachers assigned to areas for which they were not prepared (5, 93), elimination of courses and of extra-curriculum activities and consolidation of departments, courses, and schools, and much inferior teaching done (5). There was an appalling turnover in the teaching staffs—as high as 42 percent in 1945 in the rural areas of one state (81).

### **Efforts to Meet the Problem of Teacher Shortage**

Lowering of standards for teachers was a necessary step during the period covered in this review because of the shortage of qualified teachers. Elder (36) estimated that in 1945 there were 175,000 emergency teaching certificates issued in the United States. Maul (65) found that for 1945 one-fifth of the elementary school teachers in nineteen states were teaching under substandard certificates. More than 50,000 teaching positions were discontinued during the war years (36). By the end of 1944, some 4000 agriculture teachers had left teaching during the preceding two years, causing the closing of 1241 departments of agriculture (32).

To get additional teaching staffs, all possible sources of teacher supply were canvassed thoroly. Retired teachers were recalled, and those of retirement age were kept on. Some students in college teacher-education courses were accelerated; others were put into fulltime teaching positions before completing their courses. High-school students were used as assistants in the elementary schools. There was utilization of ministers, lawyers, and other well-educated adults. Efforts were made to get teachers deferred from military service. Teachers who were untrained or whose training was out-of-date seriously needed assistance. Hence, efforts were increased to provide refresher courses, increased guidance, and aid in curriculum studies.

### **Recommendations by Investigators**

During the war years it was recommended that: prospective teachers be urged to teach as a patriotic duty (2, 61, 75, 85), teachers be frozen in their positions for the duration, they be drafted and placed in uniform (21), valuable teachers in the armed services be assigned to schools as teachers,

more teachers be deferred from military service, state and national departments of education cooperate in the recruitment and placement of teachers (46, 98), federal aid be provided to secure more adequate salaries for teachers and better school support (27, 28), and the school program include double shifts each day (45) and classes on Saturdays and during summers (2). The later reports recommended: increased salaries, more aggressive policies of teacher recruitment in high schools (40, 56, 99), concerted efforts to induce former teachers to return to the profession (72), encouragement of emergency teachers to stay in the classroom and take refresher courses (56, 66, 99), and more reciprocity between states in certification practices (91). Many reports included recommendations that state programs be launched to provide for improved teacher welfare (39). In Pennsylvania in 1944, a commission on teacher recruitment went to work with one member working with colleges, another directing recruitment in high schools, a third concentrating on cooperation in high-school guidance personnel, while a fourth developed publicity programs for use on the radio and in the movies. Herlinger reported that in Mt. Lebanon, Pennsylvania, an original number of eight high-school students interested in teaching expanded to thirty-three when teachers and the administration concentrated their efforts in interesting these students in teaching (54).

### Predictions

Predictions indicate that the teacher shortage is likely to continue for five to fifteen years (1, 7, 36). One investigator (7) forecasts that the teacher shortage will be most acute in 1946-47, but that it will improve after that time. Jelinek and Tonge (57) wrote a doctor's dissertation based largely on forecasts of teacher supply and demand in California schools until 1960. Their conclusion was that the secondary teacher supply will prove adequate in California almost ten years sooner than the elementary supply. They predicted a rapidly growing student population in California due to increased birth rate and the influx of people to that state.

School enrolments were predicted to reach an all-time high in the 1950's. With 2,000,000 more children in the schools in 1955 than there were in 1940, it is estimated that this will call for an additional 100,000 teachers (35), and that new needs and an expanded program will demand the services of 400,000 teachers for new positions following the war (76).

There were some beneficial effects of the teacher shortage, however, which may become permanent. Efforts to establish teachers' salaries on a basis which corresponds with the importance of their services to the community were frequently reported. Other reforms put into practice were the elimination of many small schools; the acceptance of married women as teachers; improved provisions for teachers' tenure, retirement, and sick leaves; and better teaching conditions for inexperienced teachers. Thus, community apathy was superseded by cooperativeness and sensitivity to the importance of good schools and adequately trained and rewarded teachers.

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## CHAPTER II

### The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency

ARVIL S. BARR

**STUDIES** in this field may be roughly grouped into four categories: (a) those which attempt to answer the question, what is a good teacher? (b) those relating to specific aspects and factors of teaching efficiency; (c) those relating to the prediction of teaching efficiency; and (d) those relating to the measurement of teaching ability.

#### Qualities Essential to Success

Armstrong (2), Dodge (7), Haggard (8), Lamson (11), and Smith (20) have reported studies of the qualities essential to success, particularly at the college level. Armstrong (2) lists the qualifications of primary importance under four categories: (a) teaching ability; (b) scholarship and scholarly ability; (c) experience; and (d) personal qualities: reasoning power, originality, memory, alertness, accuracy, application, cooperation, moral attitude, health, and zeal for investigation. The qualifications of secondary importance are: (a) standing in the profession, (b) public and community services, and (c) membership in learned societies. Dodge (7) found successful teachers: (a) more at ease in social contacts, (b) more willing to assume responsibility, (c) less subject to fears and worries, (d) more sensitive to the opinions of others, and (e) slower in making decisions than less successful teachers. Haggard (8) reported the qualities of college teachers most desired by the freshmen at Western Washington College of Education as follows: (a) skill in teaching, (b) personality to put the course across, (c) sense of humor, (d) ability to get along with students, (e) broadmindedness, (f) knowledge of subjectmatter, (g) patience and helpfulness, (h) consideration in giving assignments, (i) appearance, (j) speaking voice, (k) fairness or impartiality, and (l) consideration of students' time. Lamson (11) reported the following qualities as listed by New Jersey State Teachers College seniors: (a) knowledge of subjectmatter, (b) personality to put course across, (c) fairness and impartiality, (d) ability or skill in teaching and organizing subjectmatter, (e) ability to get along with students, (f) sincerity and honesty, (g) sense of humor, and (h) appearance. Smith (20) reports the qualities desired in good college teaching as reported by Purdue seniors and freshmen as follows: (a) sympathetic interest in students, (b) sense of proportion and humor, (c) knowledge of subject, (d) open-minded and progressive

attitude, (e) stimulating imagination, (f) personality, (g) ability to get along with students, (h) ability in teaching and organizing subjectmatter, (i) personal appearance, and (j) fairness and impartiality. A large amount of agreement will be found among the studies of student opinion.

### Factors in Teaching Efficiency

A number of studies have been reported relating to various factors in teaching efficiency. Brookover (5) studied the relation of certain social factors to teaching ability, and concluded that while teachers who have closer personal relations with their students are considered better by their students and rated higher by their employers, they tend, on the average, to teach slightly less history as measured by tests of information. Hult (10) studied the relationship between eight measures of factors thought to be related to teaching efficiency and the teaching efficiency of nineteen teachers at the end of their first year of teaching. She found correlations with the criterion (a composite of six ratings) as follows: (a) For the Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability,  $-.17$ ; (b) for the Cooperative Reading Comprehensive Test,  $-.12$ ; (c) for the Cooperative General Culture Test,  $-.17$ ; (d) for total university grade-point average,  $.44$ ; (e) for the course mark in educational psychology,  $.15$ ; (f) for the final examination grade in the educational psychology course based upon a judgment test,  $.37$ ; (g) for an objective test over the text,  $.18$ ; and (h) for practice teaching associated with the course in educational psychology,  $.17$ . Hult was primarily concerned with the contribution of a particular course in educational psychology to teaching efficiency. While achievement varied somewhat from class to class and instructor to instructor, the results on the average are summarized by correlations (e), (f), (g), and (h) above. Only one is large enough to differ from zero by an amount that is statistically significant. Retan (15) found that emotionally stable individuals make better teachers than emotionally unstable persons. Henrikson (9) reports low correlation ( $.20 \pm .03$ ) between voice and teaching success. The author suggests that the result may be due in part to the unreliability of the ratings of both "voice" and "teaching ability."

Smalzried and Remmers (19) and Hellfritsch (3) report factor analysis of teaching ability. Smalzried and Remmers, using the Purdue Rating Scale for Instructors, calculated the factor loading for the ten traits of which this scale is composed. The loading suggests two factors: (a) empathy, meaning understanding of pupils or pupil-centered teaching; (b) professional maturity, including intelligence, self-reliance, teaching effectiveness, etc. Hellfritsch, using nineteen different measures in one study and twenty different measures in another, reported factor loading as follows: (a) general knowledge and mental ability; (b) teaching rating scale factor; (c) personal, emotional, and social adjustment; and (d) an eulogizing attitude toward the teaching profession.

### Prediction of Teaching Efficiency

Martin (13), Seagoe (16, 17), and Tudhope (22) reported prediction studies. Martin found that superintendents' ratings were an unsatisfactory criterion of teaching efficiency, at least unpredictable. With an average of four years' marks as the criterion, he found that entrance test scores in English, science, history, and mathematics; high-school personality ratings; and high-school standings were among the factors of greatest predictive value. The multiple correlation for:

1. Nine entrance requirements and four years' marks was .65.
2. Thirteen variables, including nine entrance requirements and four first semester variables with four years' marks was .86.
3. Six variables, selected at the end of two years in college, with the average of four years' marks was .93.

Seagoe administered twenty-one tests representing five areas, namely, intelligence and special abilities, achievement, personality, attitudes and interests, and teaching prognosis to persons preparing to become elementary teachers. The linguistic factor in intelligence, general culture, knowledge of contemporary affairs, promise in educational courses, and general teaching aptitude were most selective. In a later study (17) the correlations with the University of California Rating Scale for Practice Teaching were reported. Teaching success did not correlate significantly with intelligence, special abilities or achievement, interests or attitudes; significant correlations were found for the Humm-Wadsworth and Bell; the Bernreuter FI-C and Thurstone approached significance. Among the teaching prognosis tests, the Morris Trait Index correlated significantly with success, and the Coxe-Orleans approached significance. Tudhope (22) found a high correlation between teaching ability as measured by the college final mark and teaching ability as measured after at least three years' experience, the coefficient of correlation being .81 for the whole group: .84 for the men teachers and .77 for the women teachers.

### Measurement of Teaching Ability

From a survey of the literature relating to the measurement of teaching ability, it would seem that less attention has been given to rating devices and relatively more attention to other objective measures. Antell (1) presented an inventory for ascertaining teacher understanding. Leonard (12) and Posey (14) summarized the dangers involved in rating devices. Shuey (18) found the Wilke Personality Rating Scale to possess a reliability of not far from .78. Gotham (3) found from a study of the validity and reliability of a number of tests that rating scales and inventories correlated only reasonably well with pupil change, the correlations ranging from -.14 to .43. Cox (6) found that teachers in general either defeated their own purposes in their handling of problem cases by making the problems worse, or they used technics unrelated to the problem.

Rostker (3), Rolfe (3), and La Duke (3), using a criterion of pupil change, report upon the validity and reliability of a very large number of teacher measures. Their results are summarized in Table I. While they found very few single measures to possess high validity, they were successful in building up composites that correlated reasonably well with pupil change. Rostker secured from a composite of fourteen measures a multiple R of .85; Rolfe a multiple R of .63 from a composite of nine measures; and

TABLE I  
Summary of Validity Coefficients

	Rostker	La Duke	Rolfe
Wrightstone Abilities.....	.58		
American Council Psychological.....	.57	.53	-.10
Hartman Social.....	.52		.38
Yeager Attitudes.....	.45	.16	.22
Torgerson Mental-Hygiene.....	.45	.24	
Teachers College Psychological.....	.40		.05
Community Planning.....	.39		
Health Test.....	.37		
American Council Government Civics.....	.36		-.01
Bernreuter (B-n).....	-.31		-.14
Bernreuter (F-c).....	-.27		
Bernreuter (B-d).....	.25		.04
Bernreuter (F-s).....	-.13		
Bernreuter (B-a).....	.20		-.11
Orientation.....	.30		-.06
Almy-Sorenson (Composite).....	.26		.36
Michigan Rating (Composite).....	.23		.39
Morris Trait Index "L".....	.20		-.17
Washburne Social Adjustment Inv.....	.13		.06
Teacher Problems.....	.11		
Stanford (T-A).....	.10		.08
Stanford (A-R).....	.04		-.15
Stanford (T-R).....	.02		-.13
Harnly Purposes.....		.13	
Harnly Policies.....		.02	
Harnly Objectives.....		.05	
Harnly Methods.....		-.32	
Harnly Total (Liberalism).....		-.02	
Jackson Social Proficiency.....		-.37	
Torgerson (Composite).....	.34		.43
Personality.....			-.30
Wrightstone Civic Beliefs.....			.29
Teacher-Pupil Relationship.....			.22
Sims Socio-Economic Status.....			-.15
Personal Fitness.....			.35
School Size.....			.31
Salary.....			.22
Experience.....			.10

La Duke a multiple R of .80 from four measures chosen on the basis of previous research.

Troyer (21) describes a number of devices used by the Commission on Teacher Education as they relate to initial student selection; orientation and guidance; general education; professional education; student teaching follow-up studies; growth in service; and special activities. Among the technics discussed are principals' ratings, faculty ratings, psychiatrists' ratings, social agencies' ratings, psychological examinations, employers' reports, speech test ratings, handwriting quality, health ratings, a contemporary affairs test, the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, a hearing test, test talks with students, the Cooperative English Test, the Wesley Test of Social Terms, the Minnesota Personality Scale, the Bell Adjustment Inventory, an inventory of activities, an inventory of reading, an interest index, a test for locating information, the Cooperative General Culture Test, the Ohio Teaching Record, student-teacher relationships, a scale of social beliefs, and various profiles based upon these.

### Summary

There has been a relatively great amount of activity in the measurement and prediction of teaching ability during the three-year period covered by this summary. The main trends and emphases for this period may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. There appeared to be a growing interest in the qualities that characterized the good teacher at the college level.
2. Very few studies of teacher rating scales as instruments for the evaluation of teaching efficiency were reported.
3. Attention seemed to have shifted to more objective tests and inventories; Rostker and La Duke reported studies wherein different combinations of these were combined into composite measures of teaching ability.
4. Interests in the prediction of teaching efficiency continued; studies by Martin and Seagoe are typical of this area.
5. Troyer and others found measurements extensively used in all areas of teacher selection, guidance, education, placement, and follow-up.
6. While no new statistical devices were developed during the period, correlation technics and factor analyses were fairly systematically applied in several instances.

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## CHAPTER III

### Recruitment, Institutional Selection, and Guidance of Teachers

CLIFFORD P. ARCHER

PROFESSIONAL literature reveals a definite trend toward greater emphasis (4) on recruiting individuals with intellectual and personal qualifications who are likely to make good teachers and more emphasis on personality as a criterion for selection. Increased emphasis on guidance with attempts to remove handicaps to successful teaching are also noticeable (4, 9). There seems to be a growing recognition that there is no one clear pattern (6) for a successful teacher, that high scholarship and high abstract intelligence (10, 12, 23) may be more significant for the teacher of academic areas like mathematics, science, social studies, and English; and that tests of aptitude for special abilities such as music (2), typing (12), and physical education may be significant for selection of those who propose to major in those areas. Evidence seems to indicate that a combination of criteria have higher predictive value for teacher education (13, 4) than a single criterion. Some evidence (25) indicates that interests in teaching may be formed as a result of experiences in the elementary or junior high school.

#### Recruiting Teachers

Herlinger (8) reports a study of high-school students who did not wish to enter teaching. An analysis of the reasons given included: no talent for teaching, decided on other occupation, social life, lack of scholarship, salary, and insufficient funds to go to school. He appointed a committee of seven teachers to render guidance service and to give high-school seniors correct information about the profession. After such guidance thirty-seven candidates for teaching were found in the 1944 class of 258 seniors. These candidates showed greatest intentions toward teaching in the elementary school and in special fields where the demands are greatest. All were found to be in the upper quartile of the senior class in scholarship.

Stroh, Jewett, and Butler (22) report an analysis of 1254 replies to a questionnaire, addressed to members of Delta Kappa Gamma Society, well distributed geographically and among various levels of teaching. Answers given to the question as to what influenced them to enter the profession brought the following most frequent replies: desire to serve society, few other remunerative occupations for women, admiration for some older man or woman teacher, consciousness of teaching aptitude, member of family of teachers, prestige, economic security, and suggestions of other members of the profession. A desire to teach seemed to have been very important in influencing the decision of teachers reporting. Economic considerations and

family pressure did not seem to be very important motives. Nearness to a teachers college did not seem to be an important factor in choice of occupation in the opinions of teachers studied. The motives for entering teaching seem to agree with the Tudhope (25) study of 693 students preparing for work in the profession. He drew up a list of seventeen motives which were checked by the 216 men and 427 women students who expected to teach in secondary and elementary schools. Anonymous replies were returned with motives ranked in order of importance. Ranks were weighted and percents of possible firsts, seconds and so forth computed. The desirable motives such as interest in subject, fondness for children and for teaching, and possibility of doing good were ranked as most influential by the majority of students; while selfish motives such as salary, long holidays, easy work, securing a job, and improving social position were much less significant. Still less significant as motives in the minds of students in training for teaching were incidental motives such as loan or grant to study, parent's wish, nothing better to do, and example of admired person. One phase of this study (24) was a survey of time of decision which indicated that the wish to become a teacher had been formed at an early age (in opinions of students) and that final decisions were made by most of the group at ages fourteen to seventeen, somewhat before completing the secondary school.

Those who are interested in the study of teacher recruiting will do well to examine the teacher replies to a questionnaire distributed by the Research Division of the National Education Association (16). In answer to a question as to whether the individual would become a teacher if she could go back to college days and start over, by far the largest percent of both urban and rural teachers said they certainly would or probably would. The largest percent also indicated that they enjoyed teaching or preferred it to other work. Some importance may be attached to the consistency of motives which teachers and students in training think influenced them to enter teaching. Of course since teachers' salaries on the whole have not been high, such selfish motives could not very well have operated. No evidence is reported which would indicate the effect which high salaries might have. In view of the motives listed, a controlled experimental program of giving youth at the junior and senior high-school level opportunities to work with younger children is worth considering as an attempt to build interest in teaching. Surveys of research on preservice selection have been provided by Eliassen and Martin (4), Blyler (2), Stroh, Jewett, and Butler (22) and Troyer and Pace (24). These cover much of the literature previous to 1943. Eliassen and Martin (4) compared research studies reported during the years 1940-1943 with those reported in 1937-1939 and for the ten-year period preceding 1943. They found a tendency to restrict admission to teacher training in 1933 and more emphasis in 1940-1943 on searching for capable candidates for teaching. There was also a tendency to retain students and help them overcome difficulties, thus enabling the candidates to qualify. Fewer candidates presented themselves for admission and thus

less selection was possible. In 1940-1943 studies (4) showed more emphasis on efforts to select candidates with good personality and good health, while in 1937-1939 scholarship and health were emphasized most often. It is apparent that a combination of selective technics are being used and efforts to determine the validity of these instruments are being attempted.

Hunsinger (12) analyzed college catalogs offering commercial teacher education and supplemented information by correspondence to determine selective practice in commercial teacher training institutions. She compared technics used in research bearing on validity. In her study of 271 institutions she found that three-fourths required some specific pattern of subjects; two-fifths, acceptable moral character; one-fourth, health certificates; and a fewer number made use of intelligence tests, evidence of professional interest, or personal interview. All required academic records of prospective students, 40 percent health certificates, 39 percent letters of recommendation, 9 percent personal interviews, and 6 percent speech or voice tests. After entrance, less than one-fourth of the institutions studied set up specific standards such as scholastic average (of C or above), personal qualities, health, use of English, records on personnel and achievement tests, professional knowledge, and interest and proficiency in typing and shorthand. More consideration was given to technics of selection by large institutions or by those located in large metropolitan centers than by other schools. Blyler (2) received replies from forty-one deans to a questionnaire dealing with selective practices. She found that 51.4 percent of universities and schools of music used some type of selective practice. In addition to other measures, 36.5 percent used the Seashore measures and 19.3 percent the Kwalwasser-Dykema tests of musical aptitude. Blyler (2) also analyzed teachers agency blanks to determine personality traits used in recommending candidates to employers. Hunsinger (12) presents data as to specific curriculum patterns required for college entrance by 200 teacher education institutions. Judged by percents given, tendencies to require a specific pattern seemed to be greatest in the nonstate universities and colleges, while state teachers colleges are less likely to require a specific pattern than state universities and colleges (12). Hancey (6) made a study of admission requirements in ninety-one state teachers colleges and found no agreement as to patterns of requirement and little tendency on the part of the majority to restrict entrance.

Butler (22) reports 138 questionnaire returns giving selective practices in state colleges and universities, liberal arts colleges, and teachers colleges. Fifteen of the sixty-two liberal arts colleges require a student to be in the upper half of the graduating class in scholarship, twenty-five require some qualifying examination, and seven admit any graduate. In state universities four of the forty-five reporting require students to be above the median rating scholastically, and twelve will admit any student. Of the state teachers colleges, 36 percent admit any graduate and eleven of the 168 reporting choose candidates for teacher training from the upper quartile scholastically of the high-school class. Many state institutions may be affected by legal

restrictions (23). Of the forty-three colleges and universities requiring speech tests, seventeen required failing students to take speech courses, twenty-three gave remedial work, and four gave clinic service. Of the sixty-eight state teachers colleges requiring a speech test, nineteen required a course for failing students and forty-three required remedial work. Butler's (22) study reveals present practice with reference to health provisions, entrance tests used, procedures for elimination of failing students, requirements for entrance to student teaching, and use made of student teaching records.

Troyer and Pace (24) gave personality and speech ratings as the most significant expansion in recent selective practice. They report practices of selection in New York and New Jersey state teachers colleges where considerable emphasis is placed on academic and personal qualifications. They also report the extensive program of selection carried on at Wayne University College of Education, where in addition to technics commonly used elsewhere use is made of cooperative tests of spelling and handwriting, special examinations of hearing and speech, ratings from interviews by principals or others, psychiatrists' ratings, social agency ratings and profile charts. Data are given showing percents admitted and rejected as a result of a combination of information secured about each student. Durlinger (3) reports additional evidence which supports the view that a combination of variables is superior to a single one in prediction of academic success. He also shows the predictive value of the tests of the Teachers College Personnel Association and concludes that no college preparatory course restrictions should be made by high-school officials, and that elementary achievement examinations are of about equal value with the high-school content examinations in predicting college grades and may be used for that purpose as well as to indicate background areas which need to be built up. He used regression equations to reveal varying degrees of predictive efficiency between the sexes, and he warns against using the same predictive agents for the whole student body. He presents zero order correlation coefficients and multiple correlations for results on college aptitude, elementary achievement and English tests, personal data, first semester grades, Bernreuter Personal Inventory, and Providence Music test. He found highest zero order correlations between intelligence and English and significant correlations between grade point averages and all measures except personality traits and neurotic tendency. By adding the achievement tests and English to intelligence tests multiple R with grade point averages was raised for both men and women. However, the achievement and English tests seemed to be sufficient for prediction. By means of regression equations he found the English test to be most significant and the achievement test to be next in value for grade prediction. Using the method of factor analysis he also found the elementary achievement test and English test to have enough factors in common with grade point averages to give them predictive value.

Romoda (18) reports an extensive investigation of selection practice

in the School of Education, Syracuse University. Information on health is secured from the University Health Center; speech, from School of Speech; personality, from faculty and deans of men and women; English, from Cooperative Test Service English Test; interest in contemporary affairs, from Cooperative Test Service Contemporary Affairs Test; scholarship ability from OCA Form 17 (or 21) Psychological Examination and scholarship in honor points per hour from the various colleges. He found students selected by the School of Education to be superior as a group to the general student body at the University, markedly superior to national norms in scholastic aptitude, English, contemporary affairs, and general culture. Men in education seemed to equal or excel the women in general scholarship and contemporary affairs but were somewhat weaker in English. Superior family backgrounds were indicated by parental occupations and parental education. His correlations between factors used for selection and honor point ratios are in agreement with those found in other studies.

Thomas (23) studied grade point averages for 232 graduates and found them to be most significant by fields of specialization. Seagoe (20, 21) furnishes two reports of a study of 125 student candidates for elementary teaching who were administered twenty-one tests and inventories at the freshman level. She found them to be at or above the seventy-fifth percentile on the manual for test used in the linguistic factor in intelligence, in general culture, in knowledge of contemporary affairs, in promise in professional courses, and in general teaching aptitude. She found them to be somewhat less selected (between the sixtieth and seventy-fifth percentile in the respective manuals) in quantitative factor of intelligence, manipulative skill, musical talent, achievement in social studies, freedom from egoistic attachments, general mental health, self-confidence, general adjustment, femininity of personality (largely women), interest in teaching, political, social and religious values, and leadership in classroom situations. When these students later became student teachers (20) the California Rating Scale for Practice Teaching (reports of validity not found) was used to secure a series of ratings by the training teachers and supervisors. She reports low correlations between subsequent ratings of the same students by the same training teacher. Altho the reliability of her measure of teaching success was low, she reports significant correlations with Humm-Wadsworth Temperament Scale Qualitative Estimate and with Bell Adjustment Inventory, adult form. She reports significant correlations between the Morris Trait Index L and success in teaching and also between grade point ratios at the end of two years of training (before the teaching assignment was begun) and teaching success. She concluded that certain standardized tests are more valid as criteria for prediction of teaching success than scholarship and subjective statements requested of students.

Henrikson (7) reports correlations between voice ratings and teaching ability as rated by supervisors, the student teaching mark and ratings by officials in the field and finds significant correlations between voice ratings and student teaching ability (434 cases) and keen voice ratings and teach-



ing ability in public schools. However the halo effect may operate to produce such relationships.

### Guidance of Prospective Teachers

Evidence (1, 4, 5, 9, 13, 18, 22, 23, 26) seems to support the view that selection for teacher education should continue beyond the time of entrance to college and not be concluded until after a short period of teaching in the schools. A large number of institutions (4, 17, 24) admit students conditionally who with proper guidance may make excellent teachers. Evidence collected at the time of entrance or at various stages during training may be used to help diagnose the strength and weakness of the student (9, 29). Armstrong, Hollis, and Davis (1) present evidence of present practice in the organization of student personnel functions in teacher education institutions. Efforts are being made to coordinate personnel services and to make guidance a function to be performed by the faculty as a whole on a cooperative basis (1), the guidance specialist furnishing information and leadership. Orientation courses (24) are given to help students in planning for teaching and living.

Elimination of those unsuited to teaching may take place at any stage. Seagoe (19) gave a battery of tests to students in training including measures of emotional stability and used as a basis for teaching prognosis Morris Trait Index-L, Coxe-Orleans Teaching Prognosis Test, George Washington University Teaching Aptitude Test, and Stanford Educational Aptitudes. She reports no significant differences in predicted teaching abilities between those who remain in college and those who drop out. She concludes that the consistency of direction of certain differences suggest the hypothesis, that the bright maladjusted individual may leave teacher training more often than the well-adjusted individual at any level of intelligence or than the maladjusted individual of normal or relatively low ability. Her study may have been affected by war-time conditions for she finds that the causes for shifting away from teaching are outside the psychological pattern of the individual.

Retan (17) reports a study of 152 teachers with less than two years experience who were rated by their county superintendents as excellent, good, fair, and poor. These ratings agreed with the ratings by supervisors of student teaching while on the campus in approximately two-thirds of the cases. While the teachers had been on the campus as students they were administered the Pressey X-O test and the Bernreuter Personality Inventory and those who seemed to be unstable were given personal interviews to try to determine the background for maladjustment. He found 51.9 percent of his formerly unstable cases to be rated by school officials as good or excellent teachers and 24.7 percent of his stable cases to be rated as fair or poor teachers. He concluded that his measures of instability were not conclusive evidence of unfitness to teach and that a better procedure would be to help those while in college to overcome maladjustment.



Larsen and Marzolf (14) administered Floyd Miller's Scale of Measuring Attitude toward Teaching to 120 students who were beginning their training for teaching and compared the high attitude group (above 9.25) with the low attitude group (below 9.15). Range given was 1.3 to 10.7, mean 9.04, and median 9.08. They report no significant difference of means for high and low attitude groups with reference to hours of credit, grade point average, and differences of means significant at the 65 percent level on Teachers College Personnel Aptitude test decile scores.

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## CHAPTER IV

### The Preservice Preparation of Teachers

W. E. PEIK\*

THERE has been a marked decrease for this triennium (1943-46) in the number of published research reports on the preservice preparation of teachers compared with the preceding period. In all, seventy-three objective studies of the better sort were found. There were 138 similar studies listed for the preceding period. This decrease is an effect of the war on the availability of persons free to do such research. It certainly is not due to a decrease in nationwide interest in the problems of the education of teachers. Research during this last three-year period is comparable in quality to that of the earlier years. However, there is still a great need for the application of more rigid scientific methods and technics of experimentation, for a better design of projects, and for studies of greater scope.

The Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education conducted a number of projects (4, 16, 17, 35, 69) related to the in-service education of teachers. Its activities stimulated a nationwide interest and cooperation on many problems of the education of teachers. The Commission's work emphasized the implementation of current theoretic and philosophic aspects of teacher education by encouraging new attacks on old and new problems. Its activities encouraged general methods of evaluation which were often subjective but always cooperative with participation by experts of good background and specialized interests. Its publications consisted largely of anecdotal reports and descriptions which have brought to the surface many problems that need further and more rigorous study. The Commission's work should result in the stimulation of much further research and critical thinking in the future.

A committee of the North Central Association (18) studied teacher education in the liberal arts colleges and the American Association of Teachers Colleges published three yearbooks (1, 26, 60) with important statistical data and other information.

#### Methods Used in the Investigations and Reports

As in the earlier review of the literature (56) a classification of the research methods and procedures used has been attempted. Where several procedures of investigation were used, they are all classified separately, instead of using only the major procedure. The distribution of methods used for the seventy-three studies reported here is as follows:

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\* The writer is indebted to Dr. Robert Koenker, research assistant, for major contributions to this chapter.

<i>Method</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
1. Objective data based on questionnaire or check list	24
2. Data from interviews, conferences, visitations, and reports	13
3. Opinion of experts or competent groups	9
4. Summary, review, or annotation of literature	9
5. Use of rating scales	9
6. Use of tests and examinations	8
7. Historical sources	6
8. Report by letter, diary, or general statement	6
9. Miscellaneous types of research methods (implied but not always fully explained)	6
10. Analysis of legal documents and records	3
11. Bulletin and catalog analysis	3
12. Experimentation	3
13. Student record analysis	2
14. Curriculum or course of study analysis	2
15. Subjective evaluation	2

There has been a relative increase over the preceding period (1940-1942) in the use of the questionnaire, rating scale, and historical sources and a decrease in the use of opinion experts and competent groups, analysis of legal records and documents, and summary, review, or annotation of the literature.

A further breakdown of the studies to indicate the levels of interest shows that ten were primarily concerned with elementary teaching, sixteen with secondary teaching, twenty-seven with the combined elementary and secondary levels, and seventeen with institutions of higher learning. There has been a marked increase in recent years in the study of higher education. Nineteen reports were concerned with teachers prepared by colleges and universities, and eighteen with those prepared in teachers colleges and normal schools.

### Classification of Studies

Ten of the seventy-three studies were primarily bibliographical in nature, most of which were annotated. Many reports dealt with a miscellany of practices and policies of teacher-training departments in general, including administrative matters as well as instruction. The area which received the most extensive attention was the professional education of teachers.

There has been a definite trend in recent years to evaluate teacher-training institutions (18, 35, 38, 43, 47, 52, 53, 57, 58, 61, 62, 65, 69, 72). These studies reveal many shortcomings existent in higher education including instruction, curriculum, guidance, administration, etc. Concerned with observation, practice teaching, and internship were ten studies (4, 8, 9, 10, 15, 24, 27, 34, 37, 69). The history of aspects of teacher training was considered by three studies (25, 40, 46).

The needs for the improvement of the teacher-training curriculum received emphasis in a large number of the studies. Teacher traits such as would affect the objectives of teacher-training institutions were studied by ten writers (21, 33, 44, 47, 49, 51, 62, 63, 64, 71). The problems facing

student teachers and beginning teachers (27, 39, 64, 67) revealed the need for more practical and realistic training. The backgrounds of prospective teachers (55, 66) is another approach to curriculum construction that should be given more emphasis. The need for curriculum guidance (22, 69) was also pointed out. Problems for further research were obvious in most reports, but were definitely pointed out in three (2, 4, 52).

In the specialized subjectmatter areas dealing with teacher preparation there was a wide variety of studies: social studies (6, 42, 57, 61), mental hygiene (2, 21, 45, 67), guidance (4, 18, 21), vocational agriculture (7, 36, 58), science (48, 57, 61), English (12, 54), music (22, 66), physical education (39, 59), speech (33, 50), visual education (19, 72), industrial arts (73), library (1), mathematics (48), intercultural relationships (14), reading (20), commercial subjects (63), safety education (60), and home economics (71). Other classifications represented are: graduate work (11, 29, 35, 42), administration (26, 52, 65), Negro teacher education (13), extracurriculum activities (18), and education of special teachers (5).

To discuss the seventy-three studies in so many fields is beyond the possibility of space. However, the preceding breakdown and classification will aid the reader who may be interested in a particular aspect of preservice teacher training. The following conclusions which were selected from typical studies in major areas will give one a good idea of the trends in the findings of the studies of this triennium.

*Professional Courses in Education*—In a survey of 200 elementary school teachers it was found that only 31 percent of the teachers sampled read one educational periodical, and 58 percent occasionally browsed thru at least one (3). College teachers of reading, supervisors, and teachers agreed that topics dealing with remedial reading, the treatment of special reading cases, and reading administrative and supervisory problems were among the least adequately trained areas in teacher education (20). The real success of any project in child study depends chiefly upon the interest, skill, and tact of the local leadership (17). A course in educational guidance did not change to any great extent the attitudes of experienced teachers toward fifty behavior problems (21). Ten out of thirteen midwest teacher-training institutions provided no systematic in-service training to facilitate more frequent use of audio-visual instructional materials (19). In a comparison of attitudes of student teachers and regular teachers it was found that student teachers were less sensitive to classroom problems, expressed a greater satisfaction over participation in community activities, and showed greater dissatisfaction over interference by the principal (28).

Students and teachers enrolled in an integrative program in professional education showed a greater understanding of how to work with a class, less of how to work with an individual, greater understanding of the teacher's role with the individual and class groups, and less of the role of the community (23). Students in education gave educational psychology the highest rating and history of education the lowest rating in a course evaluation (38). Upper class students in education more frequently commented



upon the repetition of materials, while the beginning students objected to the amount of outside work (38). Students in education made the following suggestions for the improvement of their education: more observations, more practical application, more class discussion, and more discussion of children's problems (38). Students of guidance and teachers thought the following topics should be used in a mental hygiene course for teachers: correctional schools, delinquency, exhibitionism, feeble-mindedness, fixation, frustration, introversion, juvenile court, lying, masturbation, mental disease, neuroses, play therapy, probation, psychoanalysis, rejection, stealing, syphilis, adolescent conflicts, control of worries, and personality problems (45). There was little evidence in this study that frequent use and casual presentation of terms in technical education brought about significant changes in the student's mastery of the technical terminology of the psychology and practice of teaching (43).

*General Education of Teachers*—General education of teachers is well cared for in the fields of the social sciences, science, and mathematics, less well in humanities and arts (26). The emphases that seem to pervade reports of studies are: the importance of continuity in teacher preparation and growth, the necessity for integration of experiences in teacher education, the study of the community, and the function of the teacher as an agent of community betterment (48). Little attention is given to the community approach as an aspect of conventional courses (53). Biology and sociology should be required of all students in education (57). A study to determine the musical background of 556 freshmen in six normal schools of New York showed that 42 percent of these students had received no music instruction in grades one to eight (66). There is a trend to measure the attainment of objectives by opinion analysis; however, opinion analysis must be supplanted by more objective evidence of behavior (69).

*Higher Education and College Teaching*—Under present circumstances members of thirteen teacher-training college faculties are not making adequate use of the audio-visual equipment already owned by the institutions (19). In one college motion picture materials were not easily available, and each instructor had to take the initiative to find out about films and arrange for their presentation (72). In an evaluation of verbal statements of possible outcomes of a four-year teacher education course the statements, "I shall have a comprehensive knowledge of my major field and the principles of teaching" and "I shall be able to help young people to develop their greatest usefulness," were given the highest ratings by students and faculty. The statements, "I shall have pleasantly disposed of four years of my life" and "I shall be on the road to fame," were given the lowest ratings (47). Teacher education in this country, especially since the middle of the past century, has revealed its imitative nature by frequently changing its fashions (40). At every stage much crucial research is needed, research which will not become merely another isolated atom of knowledge but which will verify or falsify a vital link in a comprehensive, unified theory of teacher education (68). If one were to act on best clues from



carefully interpreted research of the last fifteen years to date, he would upgrade the selection of teachers on scholarship and personality as far as possible; give them an improved, broad, functional, and somewhat professionalized general education; specialize them for teaching by broad fields rather than by subjects; increase the amount of well-supervised practice teaching or add a year of supervised internship; and lengthen the period of training. He would be much concerned about their attitudes, their social and cultural information, and civic-social duties (56).

*Administrative Practices and Policies*—A baccalaureate degree for all elementary school teachers, rural and urban, is required in 41.7 percent of the states. The movement in this direction seems to have started in the East and is working westward. Eleven eastern states have this regulation, as compared with four in the Middlewest, four in the Far West, and one in the South (9). In 1941, 48 percent of Negro teachers in fourteen southern states had more than two years of college training (13). Universities do not make adequate administrative provisions for close cooperation between the department or college of education and other departments of the university (65). The students' judgments of their own semester marks and final examination marks reveal correlations of .40 and .21, respectively, with actual marks (62). Educational program trends include: placing emphasis on the study of human growth and development, the acquisition of social understanding by teachers, the inclusion of arts in the education of teachers, training teachers in the technics of curriculum construction, and training teachers in evaluation (70). Organization of educational program trends include: coordination of subjectmatter departments and departments of education, provision of larger blocks of instruction, integration of theoretical instruction and actual work with children, and a plan whereby the student is given greater responsibility for his own educational program (70).

In a study of state teachers colleges it was recommended that those charged with the administrative responsibility of curriculum making should institute measures at each college designed to prepare all faculty members for effective participation in curriculum making. Since no two college situations are likely to be identical in all aspects, such measures need not be alike at each institution in a state, but should be those which will result in the greatest growth at each institution and in a maximum institutional contribution to the overall state program (52).

*Student Teaching*—The advantages of a long period of practice teaching begun early in the curriculum are: helps teacher clear up teaching difficulties early, motivates all college work, and introduces teacher to responsibility with lessened strain (8). In twenty-six universities 75 percent of the student teachers receive their practical training in the public schools (10). In twenty-six universities one of the most urgent needs in practice teaching is supervision (10). Student teachers need more definite, dependable, and meaningful objective devices for judging the value and significance of outcomes than have yet been worked out for their use in supervised

student teaching (15). In connection with student teaching the well-organized workshop is an effective method of teacher training (34). In 50 per cent of the teachers colleges of the United States, the opportunities to work with children before student teaching, in extraclass activities, and to see the homes are in need of improvement (26). Prospective kindergarten teachers who participated in the activities of a kindergarten group under observation made significantly higher scores on a kindergarten teacher situations test than another group of prospective teachers who just observed the kindergarten (24). It is possible for a student teacher to learn as much from observation as from participation, but the average of the group will not be so high (24). In conclusion, it may be said that supervision of practice teaching on the high-school level in the arts colleges of the United States is still in the formative stage. There are many serious deficiencies in the situation at present, but most college supervisors are cognizant of these difficulties and are taking steps to correct them (37). Observation of teaching is the best means of evaluation so far discovered (69).

*Special Fields*—During the last ten years (1933-1943) there has been a decrease in the number of methods courses taught in geography, but there was a considerable gain in the number of subjectmatter courses offered (6). More participating experience and responsibility for the trainee in agricultural education are needed (7). The most useful college subjects for music majors were methods (15), harmony (18), applied music (22), instrumental classes (12), and conducting (22). There are differences in the areas of subjectmatter required for certification of teachers of English (12). There is a need of clarifying objectives of industrial arts teacher education (73). Social studies teachers need a broad rather than a narrowly specialized major (42). Most of the provisions concerning the certification of teachers in those subjects which they are permitted to teach are merely quantitative in nature, expressed in semester hours of college work (54). Fifty-four percent of necessary abilities in swine production were possessed by beginning teachers in technical agriculture (58). During the period 1910 to 1940 the teacher education programs in physical education in the state teachers colleges actually changed very little as to the proportionate time allotted to teaching knowledge, general education, education, and free electives (59).

*Teacher Problems*—In a study to discover the problems of beginning teachers it was found that problems of discipline were reported with the greatest frequency by teachers, administrators, and supervisors (27). Beginning teachers sought help to a greater extent from fellow teachers than from administrators and supervisors (27). Most of the student teachers felt that teachers' salaries were not commensurate with the amount of training required. One-third said their enthusiasm had been dampened due to the type of teachers that would be their associates (64). The most common problems of beginning physical education teachers were: health education, adequate physical education plants, supervision of pupils not in gym suits, use of tests and measurements for improvement of instruction,

and organization and administration of after-school programs (39). Somehow educational leaders must find ways of improving the quality of the motivation of all persons concerned with the schools (49). The problems which teachers face are not intellectual problems to be clearly and sharply defined and solved by problem-solving methods as much as they are situations to which teachers must adjust with decision and emotion as well as with intellect (67).

*Graduate Work*—In a survey of seventy graduate departments of education it was found that requirements in course work for the master's program with a thesis range from 18 to 32 semester hours; 25 schools specify 24 hours and 34 departments require between 25 and 30 hours in courses. Credit for the thesis ranges from 0 to 12 semester hours (29). The criteria employed by the North Central Association's Commission on Higher Institutions in evaluating the competence of an institution to include graduate instruction in its program—(a) expenditure per student, (b) percent of doctor's degrees, (c) graduate study in months, (d) expenditure for books—constitute a fairly satisfactory working basis for estimating the competence of the institution (11). In an analysis as of September 1940 of those who had received the Ed.D. and Ph.D. degrees in education during the decade commencing with 1930 it was found that half of the former group and 56 percent of the latter were engaged primarily in teaching. Administration was the primary but not exclusive duty of 44 percent of the Ed.D. recipients, and of 35 percent of the Ph.D. group. Research was the major concern of only 6 percent for either classification (35).

*Teacher Traits*—The correlation between supervising critics' ratings of teachers' voices and the rating of these same teachers' voices by public-school supervisors was  $.20 \pm .03$  (33). There is no relationship between student teachers' attitudes toward teaching and hours of credit earned, intelligence, achievement, or field of specialization (44). On completion of practice teaching in home economics the student teachers listed the following as desirable traits developed: better grooming, budgeting time, poise, friendliness, self-confidence, better posture, better English, self-control, and improved vocabulary (71).

*History of Teacher Training*—The period since the close of World War I has probably seen more changes and more advances in the education of teachers than any other period in our history of twice its length (25). In the autumn of 1839, the first class of teachers' meetings now known as teachers' institutes was held at Hartford, Connecticut. Induced to make the experiment at his own expense, Henry Barnard undertook to form a class of such teachers of Hartford County as were disposed to come together on public notice. He placed them under the direction of Mr. Wright, principal of the Grammar School (46).

*Guidance*—Supervisors and administrators are not giving beginning teachers the necessary help and guidance in their problems (27).

*Curriculum Content*—In colleges and universities the facilities provided teachers to learn about our minority groups and about intercultural educa-

tion are (a) few in number, (b) poorly distributed, (c) limited in scope, and (d) the offerings are not required (14).

### Conclusion

The studies for 1943-46 tend to corroborate the findings and conclusions of earlier studies. The improvement of higher education as related to teacher education is increasing in all types of institutions and points to the need of an improved and broader teacher-training curriculum in both the professional and subjectmatter areas, preparation for teaching in broad fields rather than by subject majors, longer periods of practice teaching with more adequate supervision, more direct and practical work with children, a wider consideration of teacher mental hygiene as related to the problems faced by teachers in the field, and improvement of instruction in teacher-training institutions, allowing also more student participation. . .

Probably the most important factors for better outcomes of teacher-preparing programs are: more careful selection of persons with native competence and good personal qualifications, a functional general education related to our times and conditions, emphasis upon laboratory school experience with children, and more training in professional aspects of teaching that may develop into art and skill.

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## CHAPTER V

### Local Selection, Placement, and Administrative Relations

CLIFFORD P. ARCHER

**P**UBLISHED RESEARCH in this area during the years 1943-45 is confined to questionnaire studies. Current literature indicates recognition of the importance of placing a graduate in a school situation where he would receive sympathetic and constructive guidance and in a position for which he is best adapted by personal and professional qualifications (8). However, there is little evidence to show that conditions have improved in this respect. Current trends indicate greater emphasis on follow-up studies and problems connected with induction of the teacher in the profession.

#### Teacher Placement

Archer (1) studied the organization of teacher placement facilities in the various colleges and universities. One hundred twenty-five institutions reported by questionnaire that twenty-four out of thirty-seven large institutions, thirty out of thirty-eight small liberal arts colleges, and all of the thirty-five teachers colleges operated the teacher placement function separately from placement in other occupations. Thirteen larger universities and colleges and eight smaller liberal arts colleges handled teacher placement as one function of a central placement office. He found that placement directors divide their time between placement service and teaching, student employment, student aid, housing, direction of summer session, heading department of education, vocational guidance and counseling, testing, and public relations. Other data were reported bearing on financial support, clerical assistance, and policies regarding continued service to the alumni after graduation. Larger institutions appear to follow up graduates with continued service in relocation of position to a greater extent than do smaller colleges. Kittle (10) suggests the value of studies growing out of the work of the placement office because of the close connection between the office and former graduates. It offers an avenue for evaluation of the teacher education program. Failure and success of graduates are reported to the office. Kilzer (9) furnished some helpful information on the writing of letters of application and conducting personal interviews, altho no objective evidence as to the efficacy of the practices is reported in any of the literature. Harrington (6) reports a statistical analysis of written recommendations of candidates for teaching, some of whom were successful and some unsuccessful in securing the positions for which they applied. The Johnson and Neyman technic was used as the basis of comparing recommendations of the successful candidates with similar evaluations of their

competitors. Harrington (6) reports that recommendations discriminate reliably among candidates and that there is a reliable association of good recommendations with success in placement.

### Local Selection

Glover (5) reports technics used in the selection of teachers and gives particular emphasis to visiting the teacher at work. Leipold (11) reports a questionnaire study of sixty-five large city systems to determine which of certain duties are delegated to the principal and to what extent he exercises initiatory power concerning them. The initial selection and placement of teachers is primarily a function of the superintendent. Less than one-third of the principals participated in any way in selection, altho a conference is usually held with the superintendent when a teacher is assigned to the building.

Bagley (2) reports information relative to preference in appointment of teachers as revealed in a survey by the New York State Teachers Association. He finds some improvement since 1941 but the use of personal and political influence is not ruled out in all but six out of forty-six cities and other preferences operate to interfere with selection on a professional basis.

Evidence submitted by Stroh, Jewett and Butler (14) indicates that the bases of selection of the group of 1946 teachers studied were personal interview, specific preparation, apparent aptitude, high scholarship, influence with local authorities and competitive examination, with frequency in the order named. Most teachers think that the factors (14) which guided their employers in selecting them for positions were personality, scholarship, specific and adequate preparation, health, ability to work harmoniously with others, teaching ability, character, personal appearance, interest in the teaching profession, interest in community life and willingness to participate. Many other factors were listed. Specific preparation figured more prominently as a factor in the selection of supervisors and principals. Participation in community life seemed to be a more important factor in the minds of principals than for other members of the profession.

### Administrative Relations and Teacher Induction

Jones (8) and others suggest the value of follow-up studies of graduates and the importance of assisting them in making adjustments in the new position. The Commission on Teacher Education (17) reports three follow-up studies of graduates, including a follow-up questionnaire study of those who had gone into teaching from Stanford University. Forty-eight percent of the group receiving master's and doctor's degrees were teaching. Data relative to needs of graduates were secured. Information desired by prospective employers regarding possible employees was also received. Responses from graduates (16) of a special five-year program at Teachers College, Columbia were secured by means of a questionnaire and data compiled

relative to success and to the value of certain phases of preservice education. In the several follow-up studies checklists and essay responses were used.

In addition to follow-up studies by mail, considerable emphasis has been placed on personal visits by the staff of the teacher education institution to graduates while teaching (17). Attention has been given by administrators and supervisors to the problem of teacher adjustment to the profession. Booth (3) gave suggestions of a series of technics designed to get the teacher properly initiated into a new school system by means of conferences to acquaint the teacher with the philosophy, curriculum, and regulations of the school, and with the children of the community. Such induction is also designed to discover strengths and weaknesses of the teacher and to stimulate her to exert her best professional effort. Clark (4) reports the use of a handbook of information for the beginning teacher. Spears (13) reports a study of 102 seniors who returned to the campus after ten weeks of teaching on a full-time assignment. Almost half of the group were disturbed about low salaries. One-third were concerned about the teaching personnel who would be their associates, their petty professional relationships and jealousies, narrow attitudes, distorted pupil-teacher relations, dictatorial methods, relations with the administration, and the practice of gossiping. Twenty-three of the group were alarmed at the rigidity of the high-school curriculum which seemed to them to be poorly adapted to the slow and above-average child. Stroud (15) also points out other problems of adjustment and the dangers of narrowness and routine. He gives suggestions which might be the basis for experimentation by administrators and supervisors in the best ways of stimulating continued growth beyond the college period.

Tate (16) studied the methods of inducting new secondary-school teachers into thirty-six Idaho schools with enrolments from 150 to 160 and with an average teacher turnover in 1941-42 of 44 percent. Twenty-seven superintendents and seventy-one teachers returned questionnaires. Adjustment to pupils was ranked as the greatest problem by 81 percent of the teachers and by 76 percent of the superintendents. Teachers (64 percent) considered their second most difficult adjustment to be that of getting a working understanding of the philosophy and objectives of the school, and 72 percent of administrators agreed. Homeroom activities and club sponsorships were considered a major problem by 58 percent of the teachers and 80 percent of the superintendents. Other major problems of adjustment for teachers were those of administrative routine (attendance, reports, special duties), instructional methods and objectives in particular subjects, adjustment to the community, adjustment to other teachers, and use of textbooks and other basic instructional material, such as libraries, laboratories, and community resources. The latter was listed by 50 percent of the teachers and 88 percent of the administrators as one of the greatest difficulties in adjustment. Forty-seven percent of the teachers studied had no experience and gave the following adjustment problems (in order of frequency of mention): discipline, teaching outside of field of preparation,



understanding philosophy and objectives of the school, adjustment to other teachers, housing and living conditions, finding recreation, getting conferences with the superintendent, and finding time to take part in civic affairs. Teachers and superintendents checked a list of induction practices which seemed to be most helpful. Eighteen methods of induction practiced were checked by administrators and their teachers (whose reports were sent in individually). The four most important in the opinions of the teachers were (a) individual conferences with the superintendent prior to the beginning of the school term, (b) individual conferences following classroom visits, (c) general teachers meeting early in the year devoted to discussion of administrative organization, and routine, (d) consulting an older established teacher regarding problems, and (e) teachers guides, manuals and courses of study covering instructional practices and curriculum routine. Teachers responded to the survey by checking items about which they would like information before election, at the time of election, at the beginning of school and during the early part of the year. Sixty-five percent of the teachers and 35 percent of superintendents thought the teaching assignment (exact subjects) should be given before election, and 35 percent of teachers and 65 percent of administrators thought such information should be given at the time of election. Eighty-five percent of the teachers wanted to know at the time of election what textbooks and workbooks would be used, while the majority of superintendents (56 percent) thought the beginning of school was soon enough. Teachers wanted to know about housing and living conditions either before or at the time of election. Six other items were reported by Tate (16) as information desired. Based on interviews and articles written by teachers, Hunnicutt (7) reports valuable suggestions for the principal which would help him in his administrative relations with his teachers. Meredith (12) reports administrative practices in the use of democratic methods and the clear definition of the responsibility of the teacher.

More research is needed in best methods of local selection of teachers and in improvement of personnel records of teacher placement offices in order to give prospective employers a complete picture of the personal and professional qualifications of the candidate. Further studies are needed in the area of teacher adaptation to local school communities and the best methods to use in helping the young teacher to get a fair start in the profession. Further studies of the function of a teacher placement office as a means of validating the teacher education program would also be helpful.

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## CHAPTER VI

### Local Residents and Married Women as Teachers

DENNIS H. COOKE, JESSE F. CARDWELL, and HARRIS J. DARK

VERY LITTLE WORK of a scientific nature has been reported on the problems of married women and local residents as teachers since 1943, when Cooke, Knox and Libby (6) reviewed thirty-nine studies in this area. Wartime conditions doubtless diverted attention to other matters. Forty-two reports are here reviewed.

#### Local Residents

One of the proposals for meeting the teacher shortage in Florida reported by Mead (24) was that local residents who had taught in other states but were now living in Florida be investigated by superintendents. According to Kriner (20) the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction recommended an emergency program which included the employment of teachers on the basis of their training, ability, and certification, rather than place of residence.

Harris (15) stated that an extraneous matter like place of residence should be considered in selecting teachers only when it had a direct bearing upon the contribution the applicant might be expected to make in a specific position. It was the opinion of Mead (25) that in selecting teachers all restrictions placed on them as to residence in the home community should be removed in order to increase the supply of teachers and improve the quality of classroom work. As one of the benefits growing out of the war emergency Frazier (11) mentioned the very frequent breaking down of discrimination against applicants because of their religion, place of residence, and marriage.

#### Married Women and Proposals for Meeting Teacher Shortages

The Commissioner of Education of Vermont as reported in Bogart (3) and also *School and Society* (35) recommended that, in order to help meet the teacher shortage, school districts abandon all rules against the employment of married women. The wives of men in the armed services were mentioned as a source of teacher supply in a report by Mead (24). One of Wisconsin's teachers college (41) recommended the employment of married women with teaching experience, and married women who were educated and trained but without experience. In order to meet the current shortage the Pennsylvania State Department of Education (20) encouraged the employment of teachers on the basis of their qualifications without regard to marital status.

Cox (7) proposed calling married women back into service for the following reasons: (a) they are needed to meet the emergency; (b) the younger mothers have not been out of school long enough to become dated in the approach to their work; (c) in their training they had the advantages of a full-time teachers' course rather than the accelerated one; (d) because of their contact with children they are likely to have a rich understanding of and a realistic approach to the problems at hand; (e) since retirement they may have had more time for broader reading and cultural enrichment. To meet the problem of caring for the children in the home, she proposed that two mothers work at the same job, one in the morning and one in the afternoon, each caring for the children of both while the other was on duty.

Elder (10) reported that some of our most outstanding teachers have been married women and that the school will need large numbers of these teachers to maintain their staffs in the years ahead. Maxam (23) stated that the State Board of Education in Indiana had made a survey to determine the number of married women teachers. Kelly (18) reported that South Carolina was attempting a similar survey.

A number of reports showed that married women have been called into teaching service to meet the shortage. Cummins (8) reported that this plan was being used in Fairfield County, Ohio, and that a survey was being made to determine the number of such teachers still available. *School and Society* (35) and Woellner (42) reported that both Maine and Kentucky were calling back into service married women who could meet even the minimum emergency requirements set up by the state including those who once held certificates but had allowed them to lapse. In 1943, several states were certifying married women who could meet minimum requirements and calling back into service others who were formerly certificated but not eligible to teach (41).

According to a report by Bowers (4), 5524, or 11 percent, of Ohio's teachers were married women in 1942-43, compared with 3894 during the previous year. There were 8285 married women teachers in the state of Ohio in the fall of 1943 (32). This was about 22 percent of the total number of teachers employed. On the basis of reports reaching the U. S. Office of Education in large numbers each week, removing the discriminations against married women teachers was helping to relieve the shortage in some communities, but in others such teachers with experience were difficult to find. In some communities the married women teachers were resigning because their husbands were receiving increased incomes (40).

In a study based on information submitted by more than 1400 superintendents and cooperating members of their staffs the Research Division of the National Education Association (30) found that there were 20 percent more married women teaching in December 1942 than in December 1941. The increases varied inversely with the size of the cities.

According to Frazier's (11) report of a nationwide study made by the United States Office of Education in 1944, more than half the superintendents had employed married women to meet the teacher shortage.

Of 1389 school systems reporting 47 percent reinstated married women in 1942-43 and 57 percent in 1943-44 (38). Most of the 154,900 teachers leaving the profession from October 1942 to October 1943 were replaced by former teachers who had left their positions to be married or for other reasons (39). Frazier (12) found that 20 percent of the women who left their teaching positions between the school years 1941-42 and 1942-43 did so because of marriage. Many of these women, most of whom were welcome in other vocations, were willing to continue teaching but were not permitted to do so. Frazier thought this was "something of a commentary upon local management of the situation."

Green (14) was encouraged because the closing of so many rural schools had been prevented by the voluntary return of married women teachers in the local communities. The Education Section of British Information Services (5) announced that Great Britain had suspended the regulation requiring women teachers to resign when they married.

### Unique Contribution of Married Women Teachers

Alexander and Neterer (1) suggested that because of their intimate contacts with parents, with the responsibilities of parenthood, and with children both in the home and the school, married women teachers may bring unique contributions to the school's program of instruction and community relationships.

Butler (37) acknowledged that it took World War II to bring England to an understanding of the very special contributions that married women teachers may make to the schools. Green (14) and Diehl (9) paid high tribute to the married women teachers who returned to the school room during the war period.

### Court Decisions and Legal Trends

The bars and regulations against married women teachers are of different kinds. Shallcross (36) listed the most frequent regulations as: (a) the refusal to hire the married woman; (b) dismissal of the woman teacher upon marriage; (c) delay in granting promotion, or actual demotion because of marriage; and (d) either permanent or temporary dismissal when pregnant. Hodgdon (17) indicated that the number of court rulings regarding the rights and responsibilities of teachers under state statutes providing tenure continues to grow.

Recent cases include a decision rendered in Louisiana (16) in favor of a married woman teacher who was refused a leave of absence because of pregnancy. The court held that schoolboards may not make rules and regulations as "they deem proper for the regulations of schools" when such rules and regulations are inconsistent with the state tenure laws. Neither can a Louisiana schoolboard (26) reorganize a school in such a way as to exclude a tenure teacher while on maternity leave, since this would be an indirect way of removing her for a reason not specified by law.



In Ohio (26) a schoolboard cannot refuse a continuing contract on the grounds of marriage even when it is a violation of a board rule. In Pennsylvania (28) the court held that marriage does not bear any direct relation to a teacher's fitness or capacity to do her work properly and may not be used as grounds for the dismissal of a tenure teacher. In Tennessee (33) the general statute specifying causes for dismissal does not include marriage, and so the court has ruled that marriage is not a cause for the removal of a tenure teacher.

Rosenfield (34) said that it is reasonable for schoolboards to make regulations forbidding the employment of married women who are not under tenure, provided the rule is applied only to cases subsequent to the ruling. But a rule forbidding employment of married women teachers cannot validly affect the teacher who is under tenure.

Altho marriage was not recognized as a cause for dismissal in Pennsylvania, the court ruled that in case a woman professional employee (27, 34) is unable to fulfil her duties because of pregnancy, the schoolboard is justified in dismissing her on the grounds of incompetency, which includes physical inability. An Ohio court, in ruling that marriage is not grounds for the dismissal of a teacher, refused to pass upon the propriety of such a rule as affecting marriages entered into subsequent to the signing of a teaching contract (26, 34).

Altho an Indiana court previously held that marriage is a "good and sufficient cause" for dismissal, a recent case in that state favored a married woman teacher, on the grounds that she had not been afforded proper safeguards guaranteed her by the tenure act (34). Massachusetts (33) courts have held that the tenure law does not exclude marriage as a cause for dismissal. In Illinois (28) a court refused to review the case of a married woman teacher's dismissal on the grounds that the dismissal was a discretionary matter.

### **Married Women Teachers After the War**

England (37) proposed the removal of the ban on married women teachers. Along with plans to reduce class size and to provide better opportunities, provision is being made to make use of married women teachers. School officials in England expect the married woman teacher to fit into a part-time program, thus allowing time for the teacher's own family.

The issue is not so clear in the United States. The fact that eleven of thirteen large American city school systems do not discriminate in any way against married women cannot be interpreted as evidence that the ban is lifting, for a more inclusive study (31) reports that married women are entirely ineligible for appointments in 58 percent of the cities and are at a disadvantage in 95 percent of 1782 school systems studied.

There is still sentiment against married women working, as expressed in Good's (13) review of Florence Hale's statement that much publicity should be directed toward discouraging the woman with children under

fifteen years of age from going into employment, because of the psychological need of her presence and time in the home. Yet, the platform of the National Education Association in 1944 included the following statement (29): "The selection and promotion of teachers should be on a professional basis. . . . Teachers should not be discriminated against because of race, color, belief, residence, or economic, or marital status."

A National Education Association research report (31) shows that teacher opinion on this subject is not uniform. In cities where there is a non-discrimination policy, 61 percent of the single women, 87 percent of the married women, and 67 percent of the men teachers favored the policy as practiced. Only a small fraction of the teachers in this group who preferred some other policy, subscribed to a policy of complete discrimination against the employment of married women as teachers. From the group of city school systems that deny employment to married women and dismiss women teachers who marry, 29 percent of the single women and 38 percent of the men favored a policy of complete discrimination toward married women. Only 27 percent of the single women and 31 percent of the men teachers in this group favored unrestricted employment opportunities for married women. Among the rural teachers reporting opinions, 41 percent of both sexes favored full employment opportunities for married women teachers, and only 8 percent of the women and 13 percent of the men favored a policy of complete denial of employment opportunities to married women teachers.

Elder (10) and Harris (15) declared that the marriage ban must be cast aside in order to insure a supply of teachers in the postwar period. MacLeod (22) stated that married women may well find themselves faced by a condition that urges their remaining in the schools. Leggett (21) indicated that the question of the married woman teacher will become a prominent one as soon as war conditions are over. He insisted that the married woman should have a place in the schools; that marriage does not render the woman unfit to teach, but that it should so enrich her life as to make her even a better teacher. Shallcross (36) presented arguments favoring the employment of married women; but added that the real question to face may not be, "Should married women work?" It may be, "Under what conditions should they work?"

Kramer (19) presented a short study to show that the attitude of superintendents toward the employment of married women teachers has not changed. Of the twenty-one schools selected for the study, only one employed married women before 1941, but in 1944 all but four employed them. He said that the opinions of the administrators did not change. In 1941 eight were favorable toward the employment of married women; thirteen were not. In 1944 the figure stood the same. Among the arguments presented by superintendents were: (a) married women teachers normally cause unemployment among unmarried women, which the public will not tolerate; (b) the married woman cannot be dealt with singly, for the school-board and superintendent must deal with the husband too; (c) local politics

are too much involved in their employment; (d) she has little or no time for outside activities; and (e) because she teaches for pin money, she underbids the professional teacher.

These statements serve to emphasize Rosenfield's statement (34) that there is not sufficient evidence to establish a decision concerning the status of the married woman teacher after the war. Schoolboards may revert to their former practices concerning the marriage clause in the teacher's contract, or the time may be at hand, as suggested by MacLeod (22), when the married woman teacher will be urged to teach. She indicated that the economic pattern may be on the verge of change; that the married woman worker may become a preferred status; and if so, the school may have to provide what the home will lack. In that case the married woman teacher, who is also a mother experienced in homemaking, will fill a definite need.

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## CHAPTER VII

### In-Service Teacher Education

MAURICE E. TROYER, JAMES E. ALLEN, JR., and WILLIAM E. YOUNG

FOUR REVIEWS of the history of teacher education, Evenden (39), Hill (52), Knight (59), and Lins (61) will be exceedingly helpful to those who wish to gain perspective on problems of in-service teacher education. Lins, for example, found teachers interested in the following topics for discussion in 1862: (a) Can teaching be reduced to a science? (b) Does the pecuniary prosperity of a nation depend upon its intelligence? (c) What are the prominent causes of failure in teaching? (d) Should prizes and awards be made for superior scholarship? (e) By what plan can a teacher best succeed in keeping the students employed? (f) What methods of instruction will best lead students to original investigation? (g) What disposition should a teacher make of his school time after school hours? (h) How can the pupils be taught good manners? and (i) Should a military spirit be encouraged among pupils of our common schools?

A study of the literature on in-service teacher education of the past three years indicates that the immediate concerns of teachers today are fundamentally the same as eighty years ago. However, as teachers of today study their problems they find them rooted in deeper and more basic issues of education and of society. The major developments in in-service teacher education in the past three years have been toward more effective organization of programs for the study of these basic issues. Accordingly, there has been some shift in the topics covered since the review reported in 1943. Within the limits of space allowed, it was possible to report less than one-third of the material in the literature. Even so, it was necessary to take liberties with the concept of research in deciding to include some of the references. Such liberties seem justified, however, during a period when much significant exploratory work is being done in an area as important as the in-service improvement of teachers.

#### General Principles and Procedures

Bigelow (17), Haskew (48), and Troyer (104) summarized the work of the Commission on Teacher Education bearing on the purposes, nature, organization, staffing, and evaluation of field, college, regional, and state-wide workshops and conferences. Emphasis was placed on democratic processes, careful planning, necessity for programs of action, the identification of problems teachers believe important, pooling of local and college resources, adequate financing, and provision for staff time. From the survey of 247 schools in the North Central Association, Jessup and Lecture (55) concluded that teacher-sharing in the planning of in-service education is very important. They listed technics for education of teachers in service.



Corey (29) presented an excellent statement of the principles of teacher development based on concepts of adolescent growth. He then proceeded to point out the implications for administrator-teacher relationships. While *Leadership at Work* (73) is directed mainly at the nature of leadership and school organization, it is permeated with stimulating illustrative material significant for teacher education. Brown (20), Douglass and Mills (36), Juckett (56), Murray (71) and Anderson (4), thru their several approaches, indicated current and postwar needs for continuous in-service teacher education and suggested the organization, procedures, and values of such programs. Sims (95) reported two types of difficulties recognized by the staff of a workshop, one relating to the choices teachers made of problems to study, the other to methods teachers used in their study.

### War Emergency Programs

Employment during the war of great numbers of inadequately prepared teachers prompted many states and communities to undertake large-scale emergency programs of in-service teacher education. *Education for Victory* served as a clearing house for information relative to many of these programs. The *Twenty-third Yearbook of the National Association of Supervisors of Student Teaching* (72) described emergency in-service programs in several states. Anderson (4) and Chisholm (24) explained how the state of Washington organized its total resources to meet the war-time needs of teachers. Andrews (7) described a twelve-hour basic course in teaching fundamentals patterned after instructional procedures developed in the Army Training Program. This course was taught to administrators who in turn taught it to their emergency teachers. Plans for the training of emergency nursery school teachers in Rochester, New York, from selection to promotion as supervisors was described by Beach and Kumpf (15).

Hunt (53) stressed participation of emergency teachers in curriculum revision and development along with regular teachers as one of the best ways of helping those inadequately prepared. Christensen (25) described the development of four county workshops within a radius of seventy miles of Moorhead State Teachers College in Minnesota to serve teachers with emergency certificates who could not attend professional schools. Seay and Taylor (89) described similar workshops in Kentucky that focused on schools serving community needs such as health, sanitation, crop rotation, and tree culture. Seay (86) in a later article set forth basic principles and procedures for workshops for the inadequately prepared teachers. A manual for capable high-school graduates pressed immediately into teaching was prepared by Sorenson (98) with the help of other faculty members.

### The Role of Colleges and Universities in In-service Training

Spurred on by war-time needs, colleges and universities played a stronger role in the growth of teachers in service. Increasingly they provided per-

sonnel and material resources in local school systems seeking help in studying their educational problems. Rogers (85) stressed the value of studies of school systems by staffs of schools of education as material for in-service training programs. The purposes, technics, and advantages to teachers and administrators of utilizing university resources in the study of local school problems were explained by Ganders and Price (44). Darlington (32) described the program developed at Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College to make its staff and resources available to teachers working on school and community problems. Parker (77) reported the activities of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in providing many types of in-service training programs for schools in the southern states.

Davis (33) described an interesting experiment in the form of a learning conference sponsored by the Bureau of Educational Research, University of Colorado, in which university resources were combined with local resources for mutual benefit. He concluded that the most significant contribution of the conference was the opportunity that it afforded for blending theoretical and research data with teaching experience. Four methods used by a state-supported institution to facilitate practical in-service teacher training during the war period were reported by Dawson (34). They included: (a) local workshops conducted by members of the college faculties; (b) visits by groups of teachers in service to the campus demonstration schools; (c) the granting of credit approved by the state board of education for local workshops; (d) the establishment of a statewide committee on postwar planning of curriculum.

Various aspects of an in-service workshop conducted by the Euclid Schools of Cleveland in cooperation with the Ohio State University College of Education were described by Fordyce (42), Boric (18), Yauck (110), and Rath (81) (82). This program dealt with problems of evaluation of interests, social competence and acceptance, social adjustment, and questionnaires to parents concerning the background and emotional makeup of children. Hildreth (51) reported fourteen conclusions from teachers' appraisal of a summer workshop in which they had an opportunity to observe classroom teaching, discuss observations, and work in small groups on problems of instruction. Olsen (76) in a national survey found that approximately one-third of all fully accredited teacher institutions in America make available to teachers some type of experience with the philosophies, procedures, and problems of community-centered education.

### **City, Town, and Rural Organization**

The New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education (75) and the Association of Assistant Superintendents in the city of New York (14) reported on an extensive year-around in-service training program for New York City teachers. The report by the former group (75) revealed the progress that hundreds of teachers can make over a two weeks' period

in clarifying objectives, developing units of instruction, accumulating various materials, and developing appraisal procedures. The Association of Assistant Superintendents (14) described how a large city meets the problems of teacher growth and presented a list of diversified activities for the in-service training of teachers and administrators. Hyams and Klock (54) reported how a group of New York City teachers studied to develop their resourcefulness as instructors in radio production classes.

An in-service training program for teachers in thirty-one junior high schools in Los Angeles was reviewed by Rogers (84). Several ways in which the junior high-school teachers and principals keep abreast of new educational practices were explained. Cushman and Taulane (30) gave an account of a citywide teacher improvement program in Philadelphia and concluded that teacher improvement, supervision, and the development of curriculum materials are inseparable as to time, place, and person; in-service education of teachers should be the outgrowth of classroom work in the school and community in which each individual is located; mature and secure persons are those who consciously and openly seek personal growth in service.

Two annual, after-school, four-day workshops in Atlanta entirely planned by teachers are reported by Haskew and Smith (49). One emphasized greater unity between levels of the school system, the other emphasized better health programs. Three hundred twenty-five of the 991 teachers in the city were enrolled; thirty staff members from outside the system were brought in. Outcomes included (a) the establishment of twelve study committees to work on problems and make reports as basis for the following year's work conference, (b) the arrangement with local colleges for courses in health education, (c) the request that various schools and individuals tackle certain problems experimentally.

Goslin (46) described the five-year progress and accomplishments of an in-service program in Webster Groves, Missouri. The program began with a questionnaire circulated among teachers which sought the interests and problems of the teachers and their reactions to educational trends. This was followed by the appointment of two faculty committees: a representative committee and a research committee. These committees made and evaluated studies, held discussion meetings, issued bulletins, and stimulated in-service activities. The author concluded that the program had developed in teachers (a) a better understanding of problems; (b) a broader and surer base for educational philosophy; (c) keener interests and insights and increased ability to think critically; and (d) greater ability to contribute constructively to group discussions. Anderson and Long (5) reported a summer workshop conducted by the schools of Portland, Oregon, in cooperation with the State System of Higher Education involving demonstration classes followed by discussion and work on special problems.

Theissen (103) reported how the administration and staff of the Milwaukee school system took advantage of an emergency delay of three

weeks in the opening of school to provide in-service training of teachers. Cartwright (23) described an interesting two-day program for teachers in the Elgin, Illinois, High School held prior to the opening of school in which parents, students, and teachers participated in panel discussions of school problems led by nationally known consultants.

A profitable program designed to improve the quality of substitute teaching in Belmont, Massachusetts, is reported by Shibles (92). Teachers on the substitute list attended a series of thirteen meetings organized as workshops which dealt with current activities in the school, aims and objectives of the school program, new methods and materials, and other aspects of the school system. This program resulted in an increased number of competent substitutes and in more efficient and economical substitute teaching.

Herrick (50) gave an account of three rural workshops for teachers in Tennessee, Illinois, and Minnesota. The different needs out of which these programs arose and the various types of sponsorship, organization, and resources involved were described. Angell (9) reported ten outcomes of a field workshop in which 95 percent of the teachers of a central rural school met for two hours on alternate weeks thruout a two-year period with regular consultant services from a nearby professional school. Martin, Rice, and Ward (64) explained how the conventional type of teachers institute was turned into carefully planned work conferences in which teachers received help individually or in small groups on their problems.

### **County, Regional, and State Programs**

The First Miami Workshop Report (70) and the second by Klein (58) showed the results of cooperative effort to outline a program of public education in Ohio. In addition to public school and college representation many other organizations participated: the Ohio Chamber of Commerce, Congress of Industrial Organizations, American Federation of Labor, Association for Childhood Education, the Ohio State Grange, Ohio Farm Bureau Federation, American Association of University Women, League of Women Voters, Ohio Congress of Parent Teachers, Society for the Advancement of Colored People, and the Urban League. Eckelberry (37) reported a specific outcome of the Miami workshop: the joint sponsorship of a conservation laboratory for secondary school teachers by the Ohio State University Colleges of Agriculture and Education and the State Division of Conservation and Natural Resources. Beecher (16) gave an account of a workshop on regional resources that brought together representatives of labor, business, and other organizations for the solution of common educational and community problems.

Snively (97) reported the joint efforts of colleges, schools, and state departments in the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools to improve classroom procedures, administrative practices, teacher-pupil-parent relationships, community life, and teacher education. The Texas

Study of Secondary Education (74) provided channels for the interchange of ideas and opportunities for teachers and administrators to work together on programs that serve the needs of youth in their community. The method whereby three counties in West Virginia cooperated with Morris Harvey College as part of a statewide plan was described by McGarey (67). Each county formed an in-service training council.

Seay and Meece (87) (88) reported on both the planning of a statewide program of education in Kentucky and on the Sloan Foundation experiment. The statewide program was a cooperative venture by the Kentucky Education Association, state department of education, and representatives of colleges, public schools, and civic agencies. The report described developments in fourteen schools and colleges. The Sloan Foundation Study is attempting, thru the University of Kentucky Bureau of School Service, to improve community living by focusing on three basic economic necessities: food, clothing, and housing. Summer workshops on campuses and in local school settings have been used to produce curriculum materials of local and regional significance. This report also revealed methods of measuring outcomes of the program. Other comprehensive reports of Sloan Foundation Studies were made by Lowery (63) and Koeninger (60).

Roberts (83) reported a workshop for county supervisors on the economic characteristics of the area, health conditions in the counties, and school services available, leading up to plans for the work of the schools during the following year. The California State Department of Education (22) prepared a bibliography to help meet needs of teachers, supervisors, and administrators.

### **In-Service Training for School Administrators and College Teachers**

An important development which provides in-service education for administrators, as well as teachers, board members, and other laymen, was described in a report (69) of the work of the Metropolitan School Study Council in which representatives of sixty-seven metropolitan New York school districts studied educational problems of common interest and practical concern. Parker (79) reported on the School for Executives held at Jackson's Mill, West Virginia, sponsored by the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the Commission on Teacher Education. More than a hundred administrators from teachers colleges and other institutions of higher education studied various problems relating to the improvement of teacher training.

Shannon (90) in a survey of seventy-one faculty members of the Indiana State Teachers College found that 75 percent favored a supervisory program for improving teachers in service. Those who opposed supervision were said not to understand what well-conceived supervision is or what it aims to accomplish. Even those who favored an in-service program had no clear idea of how it functions. The suspected resentment by college faculties



to supervision of instructors was said to be to a large degree fictitious and, where real, to be based on misconceptions. The complacency of junior colleges with respect to in-service training was deplored by Simons (94). He calls for deans of junior colleges to give more emphasis to in-service training, and to recognize their full responsibility for the improvement of junior college teaching. The fifth report (99) of the Committee on Work Conferences of the Southern Association describes the work of committees on curriculum studies, planning postwar education, and teacher education.

### **Intercultural and Sociological Foci**

Taba (102) pointed out the usefulness of workshops in reducing the lag between the development of an idea and the time when it gets into the textbooks. She further appraised the workshop method with respect to five tasks in intercultural education. According to Mead (68) common residence and other types of close interpersonal relationship between workshop sessions are necessary to bring about the emotional climate that should prevail among individuals as they discuss intergroup conflicts. The chief problem areas faced in workshops on intergroup conflicts, according to Giles (45) are: (a) administrative procedures, (b) curriculum and method, (c) teacher education, and (d) school-community relationship. This discussion should prove helpful to those planning similar workshops. Cole (26) reported the purposes, program, procedures, and appraisal of a workshop on intercultural education for representatives of the public schools of Los Angeles county and city, Council of Social Agencies, Los Angeles Youth Project, the Housing Authority, and other social agencies, citizens, and representatives of university faculties. A ten-point program for intercultural education in the New York City schools was the focus for twelve groups of teachers in a workshop reported by Bristow (19). Andrus (8) described a special workshop to adapt the school program to the needs of Spanish-speaking children of Los Angeles county and city schools.

A workshop that included both planning and implementation is described by Hall and Thomas (47). Thirty-four teachers and staff members of a George Peabody College workshop moved to Dog Creek to work with twenty-nine children and eight mothers on the improvement of a one-room school, its programs, and the community. A contrasting type was described by Mayfarth (65) in her report on the unique contributions of a retreat to the quiet and beauty of the mountains for relaxed consideration of educational problems, recreation, and sharing of experiences. Still another type of workshop was reported by Dallas (31) in which a group of county schools cooperated with Fort Valley State College in organizing a program in which a group of teachers worked for pay during the summer and in the process surveyed land production and collected data for the writing of curriculum material. The value of off-campus experience for both teachers and the college staff was emphasized by McAllister (66). The workshop report of Miner Teachers College (38) revealed how teachers, parents, and

representatives of social agencies met regularly to study adolescent problems of school and community.

Several teacher education programs combined child study and sociological and intercultural problems. Wrightstone, Parke, and Bressler (109) described the work of a group of teachers who made intensive case studies gathering evidence from numerous sources and with a variety of technics. In a workshop reported by Smither (96) child study by the teachers brought parent visitation and eventually parent-teacher cooperation in the study of children and the program of the school. A workshop on home and family life was reported by Andrews (6) emphasizing some of the most fruitful methods of bringing about parent-teacher cooperation. Fenton and Davis (41) gave an account of an in-service program to improve the mental hygiene of the classroom and playground.

### Special Studies

Antell (10) (11) (12) studied teachers' interests, understandings, backgrounds, and present status for the purpose of developing guiding principles for their improvement in service. Twenty-three guiding principles were enunciated from the inventory of teachers' interests (11); seven were derived from a study of the backgrounds and present status of teachers (12); twelve more were developed from an inventory of teachers' understandings of child growth and their acceptance or rejection of educational principles (10).

Weber (108) reported the reactions of teachers toward in-service education in two groups of selected schools using different types of in-service technics. One group used technics characterized as distinctly cooperative; the other used technics characterized as principal-centered, traditional, supervisory, and individualistic. Reactions were obtained on questionnaires which asked teachers to evaluate the in-service training in their schools according to a list of criteria for appraising in-service programs. Summarized responses to the criteria favored technics in the group of schools characterized as using cooperative practices. The author concluded that the most promising technics are those which give teachers a large share in shaping policy, in planning, and in conducting faculty meetings, and which provide situations in which teachers, pupils, parents, and board members work together in attacking problems arising in the school. Von Eschen (106) reported an experimental study of the effectiveness of supervision on measurable changes in pupils with respect to certain stated objectives. He found that supervision was most effective in those areas in which the supervisory program was most concentrated. He concluded that in order to get maximum results supervision should be centered upon a particular area in which improvement is desired.

Parker (78) reported the evaluation of the "Southern Study" by the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research of the Southern Association. He listed seven evidences of changes in opportunities for teacher growth

and twelve evidences of teacher growth. Symonds (100) (101) reported on three studies of teacher problems and how teachers solve them. Altho these studies would be referred to more appropriately under personnel or psychiatric services to teachers, they reveal the need for a type of in-service teacher education which would improve the emotional climate of the classroom and the effectiveness of the learning situation for children. Similarly, definite implications for the improvement of in-service training programs were pointed out by Di Michael (35) and Alilunas (1) in their studies of the mental hygiene of teachers.

### **Special Technics and Devices**

Frissell (43) reported an in-service course in typing for teachers in Hartford, Connecticut. Teachers practiced before and after regular school hours for a four-week period. Sherman (91) gave an account of methods of filming a unit of work in his school exactly as it took place and discussed the potentialities of such films for in-service training of teachers. Warren (107) described a radio course for Massachusetts teachers offered by the Massachusetts Division of University Extension in which teachers could earn academic credit. In order to receive credit they were required to listen to ten of twenty-six broadcasts, submit four written reports on background reading and two summaries covering the broadcasts, and take a final examination.

### **Reactions of Individual Teachers to In-Service Programs**

A number of teachers, individually and in small groups, have described and appraised programs of in-service teacher education in terms of their own achievement. These reports are exceedingly illuminating. Burnett (21) reported on help she received from summer attendance at a science workshop. Shular (93) gave an account of her own efforts to develop social concepts thru high-school English material. A report on her own attempt to meet more adequately the needs of pupils was given by Lowance (62). She points out that schools vary in their readiness for experimental democratic programs. Also that it is necessary to give students many glimpses of the newer type education before they embrace it as an opportunity to realize their own purposes.

Anderson, Ramsey, and Wall (2) reported in detail their experience in planning an eight-week trip to the cooperating schools in the Stanford Social Education Investigation and to the workshop on the Stanford Campus. This method of in-service education subsidized by scholarship is especially useful in developing local leadership and resource personnel. Kaylor (57) indicated ways in which the school librarian can be helpful to and helped by an in-service teacher education program. Ten teachers with fellowships from the General Education Board reported (3) the results of their work in the Stanford Social Education Investigation, listing prob-

lem areas critical in the life of Southern youth, objectives for helping Southern youth, and the behavior of youth that should serve as criteria of success in teaching.

### Reports of the Commission on Teacher Education

Altho the reports of the Commission on Teacher Education are being reviewed in a separate chapter, it seems appropriate that some of them be listed here because of their direct or indirect bearing on programs of in-service teacher education. Faulkner and Davis (40) described the nature and outcome of teachers' participation in the art programs at workshops. Teachers for Our Times (27) described the qualifications of teachers and the nature of education after examining "our children" and "our culture." Troyer and Pace (105) discussed the interrelated function of learning and evaluation in in-service teacher education. The entire volume by Prall and Cushman (80) concerns the human engineering, planning, and procedures of the in-service teacher education in small and large communities. Portions of the report on the preservice education of teachers by Armstrong, Hollis, and Davis (13) attempt to bridge the gap between preservice and in-service teacher education. A report from the Commission's Division on Child Development and Teacher Personnel (28) described the efforts of teachers to understand children in a small city school system over a three-year period.

### Summary

Altho teachers' spontaneous expressions of their problems today are similar to those of eighty years ago, recent studies show that as teachers organized to study their problems they came to grip with deeper-rooted and more basic issues. In this process, a number of trends have clearly emerged. Faculty meetings were noteworthy in the past for their attention to routine matters. There is a strong tendency now for faculties to organize into groups for child or community study, curriculum revision, or improving evaluation. Workshops in which consultants from professional schools are brought in to work on local problems are replacing extension courses conducted according to predetermined outlines. In reviewing the literature of the past three years it is all the more clear that problems in the schools do not fall within specific course lines. Likewise, there is an increasing tendency in summer sessions toward spontaneous development of flexible programs organized around emerging educational problems of schools and communities. And in certain localities administrators and teachers of neighboring schools are associating themselves in a cooperative attack on educational problems of common interest and concern.

Cooperative and democratic processes in the planning and procedure of in-service training are stressed thruout most of the literature, perhaps to some readers ad nauseam. These processes are complex and hence do not lend themselves readily to clear-cut, highly controlled research study.

However, they can, and should be, studied more carefully and more objectively. The majority of the reports were weak in this regard. Nevertheless, it is entirely possible that history will give much credit to teacher education for keeping the democratic process alive during a period when there was a tendency in our schools and in our government to disregard democratic procedures and delegate unlimited authority to meet local and national emergencies.

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## CHAPTER VIII

### Teaching Load and Assignments

HARL R. DOUGLASS and STEPHEN ROMINE

A REVIEW OF SELECTED STUDIES dealing with teaching load and assignments published during the three-year period 1943-45, inclusive, is herewith presented. The review reveals a decreasing number of investigations as compared with past years, particularly with respect to subject combinations.

#### Pupil-Teacher Ratio

Blose and Alves (2) found that, with the exception of the depression year 1933-34, the pupil-teacher ratio, until the outbreak of the war, remained rather constant: 25.2 in 1929-30, 26.9 in 1933-34, 25.0 in 1937-38, 25.2 in 1939-40, with a very slight rise to 24.5 in 1941-42. That there was wide variation in this ratio is evident from the following extremes for the year 1941-42:

<i>States Having High Ratios</i>		<i>States Having Low Ratios</i>	
North Carolina	31.2	South Dakota	14.6
Mississippi	29.7	North Dakota	15.6
Maryland	29.2	Nebraska	16.5
Alabama	28.8	Wyoming	16.8
Arkansas	27.8	Montana	17.5
Virginia	27.8	Iowa	18.8

States having the higher ratios were generally Southern, whereas those having the lower ratios were Western North Central.

Blose (3) reported 36.5 as the 1943-44 ratio of pupils to teachers in the public elementary and secondary schools of 39 states. In a study of 36 Idaho high schools ranging in enrolment from 150 to 650 pupils, Tate (16) indicated that the pupil-teacher ratio varied from 23 to 29, Nelson (12) stated that in California high schools the average ratio of pupils to certificated personnel for several years had been about 25.0, altho in 1942-43 it dropped to 23.5. Figures for the pupil-teacher ratio in eighty-nine large cities showed wide range on all levels for the year 1941-42 (11): elementary, from 21.1 to 39.2; junior high school, from 13.0 to 35.8; and high school, from 18.2 to 31.7. In a study of 123 schools in sixty-eight cities of over 100,000 population, Herrick (7) found that in 1943-44 the pupil-teacher ratio ranged from 16.55 to 34.0. The number of pupils per teacher, he indicated, was usually in the middle twenties, with a median of approximately 24.5.

It is doubtful if the figures in these several studies are comparable, for definitions of methods employed in determining the ratios were not given in each case.



### Class Size

Herrick (7) determined that in scheduling class size in high school the figure thirty was most generally sought and that forty was the common limit beyond which class size was not favored, except in certain subjects. Smaller classes were sought in household and industrial arts and larger classes in physical education and music. The most frequent minimum class size was twenty in most subjects and fifteen in foreign languages, household and industrial arts, and mathematics.

In a study of elementary schools in New York, New York, it was concluded that class size was a major determinant of teacher load, and teachers recommended 30.99 as the median reasonable class size, and a median maximum class size, under favorable teaching conditions, of 34.72. Ninety-three percent of teachers of large classes felt that their load was too heavy while the same percent of teachers of small classes felt that their load was reasonable or light (15). Gray (6) stated that during the first term of 1943 the Detroit schools were reported as having more than 5000 classes of forty or more children and revealed that a recommendation passed by the Detroit Teachers' Association Congress requested the adoption of a plan for the gradual reduction of class load to a maximum of thirty pupils within a five-year period.

### Some Influences of Class Size in the Elementary School

In a study of three phases of adaptability as related to class size and involving thirty-six primary classes in four wealthy residential communities in New Jersey, Newell (14) found in each case statistically reliable differences between classes of three sizes. He defined these as small (fewer than twenty-five pupils), medium (twenty-five to thirty pupils), and large (over thirty pupils). Interpreting his findings, he suggested that teachers of small classes exhibited more inventiveness than those of larger classes and that small classes were particularly effective in that they appeared to take on new practices more readily. He also indicated that there was some evidence of a critical level above which classes were too large for adaptability, altho individual teacher variations were such as to make difficult the determination of a norm in class size for all teachers.

The influence of class size as it relates to the pupil's social and physical growth and the development of his personality and character was studied in one hundred elementary schools in New York City (15). Based on teacher opinions of class size, the testing of teachers' knowledge of their pupils and observation of classroom procedures and activities certain conclusions were reached, among which were the following: (a) of classroom conditions or activities the three involving the greatest expenditures of the teacher's time, energy, and attention were adaptation of class work to individual differences, size of classes, and clerical activities; (b) smaller classes were considered preferable from the standpoints of the teacher's

knowledge of individual pupils, the variety of learning activities carried on in the classroom, the contribution of the children to the activities, the attention given to development of desirable social outcomes, and the greater reliance placed on cooperative pupil-teacher planning and participation as a basis of social control.

### **Adjusting Class Size in the Elementary School**

Armstrong (1) reported a plan for adjusting class size in elementary schools according to the characteristics of the children taught. He assumed a standard class size of forty pupils and proposed reduction from this figure on the basis of four factors: enrolment, intelligence, transiency, and reading difficulty. For each of these factors a graduated table of addition and subtraction are given by the author. In addition to these, Armstrong prescribed further adjustment in class size upon three bases: (a) percent of children retarded in arithmetic; (b) percent of overage children; and (c) percent of problem cases due to emotional or personality disturbances.

### **Assignment of Teaching Periods and Extracurriculum Activities**

The number of periods of classroom teaching assigned in 1943-1944 as a normal load in cities of more than 100,000 population was usually twenty-five or thirty and was higher in schools having short periods (under fifty minutes) (Herrick 7). Herrick also indicated that non-academic teachers were generally assigned more periods of classroom teaching but were assigned fewer non-teaching duties so that the total load was about the same for each group. Typical schools assigned the normal load, as they defined it, to 95 percent of their teachers. Two methods were commonly found for distributing non-teaching duties (6): (a) division among all, or practically all, teachers for substantially equal loads (44 percent of schools); and (b) assignment of such duties to the more competent teachers with equalization of their load by reducing the classroom teaching load (46 percent of schools). The same study revealed that coaches carried somewhat heavier loads, in most cases coaching in addition to the regular day of teaching, and a majority of schools (51 percent) did not assign principals and deans to teach classes.

Macdougall (9) found that in fifty-nine secondary schools in British Columbia the teacher load ranged from less than twenty clock hours to almost thirty hours of teaching per week, with an average of 4.69 hours per day. Wide range also existed with respect to the degree to which teachers were relieved of extraclass assignments. In a study of secondary schools in Ontario, Clubine (4) indicated wide disparity in the extracurriculum loads carried by teachers and suggested that this load increased as the size of the school increased. It was also stated that the mean extracurricu-

lum load of men teachers was approximately 44 percent greater than that of women.

### Factors in the Measurement of Teaching Load

In an analysis of the teaching load problem Nelson (12) (13) listed thirteen factors to be considered. Myers (10) presented a table of frequency of the appearance of thirty-six factors related to teaching load as found in the literature. He classified these into three categories as follows:

Personnel	12 factors
Curriculum and Administrative	16 factors
Personal Morale	8 factors

Suggesting eight factors as basic, he then rated a number of formulas as to which factors each considered.

TABLE I  
*Item Analysis of Teaching Load Formulas (9)*

	Abraham	Almack-Burch	Brown-Fritzmeir	Douglass	Harrington	Hutson	Woody-Bergman	Sand
Class periods.....	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Duplicate assignments.....				x				x
No. of preparations.....			x	x				
No. of pupils.....	x	x	x	x		x		x
Cooperations.....		x	x	x				x
Length of period.....	x		x	x				
Subject weight.....		x	x	x			x	
Standard teaching load.....					x		x	

Indicating a need for weighing the principal factors objectively, Myers (10) stated that this was satisfactorily accomplished mathematically by the Douglass formula.

Clubine (4) discussed a number of single factors as measures of teaching load and the measurement of such load by a number of different formulas, finally using a modified form of the Douglass formula in a study of secondary schools. In this form the "cooperations" factor of the Douglass formula was divided into two parts so that relationships between the instructional load, the extracurriculum load and the specially assigned load might be seen more easily. Macdougall (9) employed teacher opinion as a measure of load and concluded from his study that in general the grade level was not a significant factor in the grades nine to twelve.

### A New Formula for Measuring Teaching Load in Junior Colleges

Lyon (8) developed a formula which involved ten factors for measuring teaching load on the junior college level:

1. Enrolment
2. Formal lecture hours weekly
3. Discussion and supervised laboratory hours weekly
4. Unsupervised laboratory, gym and conference hours weekly
5. New courses
6. Meetings off the campus and evenings per week
7. Paper grading enrolment weekly
8. Other paper grading enrolment
9. Number of advisees
10. Number of allowed weekly hours for non-teaching duties.

Lyon set the maximum load tentatively at forty-five and stated that five different classes on the junior college level constituted a full program if the point value exceeded forty.

### Load of Inexperienced as Compared to Experienced Teachers

Evans (5) reported that a recent survey of six states revealed assignments and loads of new and inexperienced teachers as being less desirable than those held in general by all teachers in the same states. Clubine (4) found that the mean total load of all inexperienced teachers was approximately 2 percent greater than that of experienced teachers, altho the evidence was conflicting and differences between the two groups were not statistically significant. Experienced teachers were found to carry heavier specially assigned loads and lighter extracurriculum loads (4).

### Teaching Load in Canadian Secondary Schools

Macdougall (9) investigated subject and grade level factors in the high schools of British Columbia. Five phases of the teacher's job were rated on a point scale with respect to both "difficulty" and "time spent." He found that some teachers were spending as much as 50 percent more actual teaching time per week than were others. The study was based on teacher opinion, and from ratings based on twenty or more returns for each subject he derived the following subject coefficients which he recommended be employed in the Douglass formula as the "SC" factor:

- 1.1 General Science V, Physical Science, Social Studies V
- 1.0 English III, IV, V, VI; General Science III, IV; Geography I, II; Guidance III, IV, V, VI; Junior Business, Social Studies III, IV
- .9 French I, II, III; Health III, IV, V, VI; Latin I, II, III; Physical Education III, IV, V, VI; Shorthand I, II; Typewriting I, II
- .8 Business Arithmetic; Mathematics III, IV, V, VI

These differ from Douglass' coefficients most markedly in that higher coefficients were found for science and physical education and lower coefficients for English, foreign languages, and mathematics. These may reflect differences in teaching between Canadian schools and schools in the United States.

In a study of the secondary schools of Ontario, Clubine (4) employed a modified form of the Douglass formula and related teaching load to a number of factors: (a) size of school, (b) type of school, (c) sex of teacher, (d) teaching experience, (e) salary paid, (f) size of staff, (g) absence due to illness, and (h) subject fields. Many inequalities, within and between schools, were revealed with respect to the instructional load, the extracurriculum load and the specially assigned load. The heaviest total load reported was nearly three times that of the lightest.

Instructional loads tended to decrease, Clubine (4) reported, as size of school increased, altho there was variation among types of schools and the extracurriculum load increased as the size of the school increased. The mean total load of all women teachers was indicated as approximately 5 percent greater than that of all men, altho the latter carried substantially heavier extracurriculum and specially assigned loads. Teacher load tended to decrease as salary or staff increased, and while the results were not statistically reliable, it was found also that teachers absent ten days or more were carrying heavier loads than those who were absent five days or less. Differences in teacher load within several subject fields were determined.

### Conclusions and Recommendations

Variation in the definition of a teacher and in the methods employed in determining the pupil-teacher ratio make difficult any accurate comparison of the results of many studies. Some standardization in this process, or at least clear definition and explanation in each study, would afford a better basis for comparison and make it possible to interpret more accurately the findings of each study.

The influence of class size upon classroom procedure and upon the individual pupil is an area in which more research is needed and out of which may come important principles which will be valuable to the administrator in scheduling class size. Likewise, the problem of adjusting class size on the basis of characteristics of the members of the class should be studied further.

Studies of the related aspects of teaching load and assignment continue to employ both objective and subjective technics, and continued research and experimentation employing such technics is recommended. The area of subject combinations has recently been neglected and is one in which additional research is needed.



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## CHAPTER IX

### Teachers' Salaries

HAZEL DAVIS

**I**N SEVERAL RESPECTS the research materials reported in this section are quite different from the studies usually cited in the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH. The most striking difference is found in the large number of reports for which no individual author is cited; cooperative research is typical of work in this field. Another unusual characteristic is the large proportion of reports sponsored by organizations of teachers. The content of the reports is likewise different; under strictly academic definitions much of the material listed might be labeled as reporting rather than research. Less rigorous selection could have resulted in a bibliography of at least two hundred titles, instead of the eighty mentioned.

#### Reports on Salaries Paid and Scheduled

Average salaries of teachers, principals, and supervisors combined, by states and for the nation as a whole, were reported annually by the United States Office of Education, as, for example, in Blose's (6) figures for 1943-44. The National Education Association Research Division (44, 45) continued its biennial study of salaries of city-school employees. Each of the NEA biennial studies was supplemented by reports showing median and average salaries for individual cities (46) and salaries scheduled in the larger cities (41, 50, 51, 52, 53).

Minimum-salary standards were analyzed by the NEA Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom (38) in a report which showed that twenty-six states now have some type of minimum-salary standard, including eleven in which there is a minimum schedule on a state basis.

The number of state education associations reporting statewide compilations on salaries paid in local systems increased. Among those that reported such information at least once during the past three years were Alabama (1), Arizona (3), California (10), Colorado (12), Connecticut (65), Indiana (25), Iowa (26), Massachusetts (33), Minnesota (76), Montana, (35), Nebraska (36), New Jersey (58) New York (60), Ohio (63), South Dakota (80), Utah (77), Washington (31), and Wisconsin (79). In Kansas such a report was made by the school of education of the state university (27). Rogers (66) showed trends in urban and rural salaries in Michigan for the five years beginning in 1938-39; Cooke (14) reported on life earnings of Michigan teachers who had retired recently, finding an average of \$42,376 for women and \$55,956 for men.

An extensive personnel survey of teachers in Connecticut (13) covered salaries and included other economic factors, such as dependency load, supplemental income, and living arrangements. More than half of the men

teachers and more than a fifth of the women teachers supplemented their salaries as teachers with outside earnings.

### Impact of the War on Teachers' Salaries

Teachers' salaries were rising thruout 1943, 1944 and 1945. In 1942-43 48 percent of the city-school systems with salary schedules reporting to the NEA Research Division (44) had bonuses or special increases in effect above the scheduled rates. In 1944-45, 55 percent of the cities with salary schedules had revised the schedules upward during the past two years and nearly half of that number were paying a supplemental bonus or special increase; in addition, 39 percent of the cities were paying a bonus but had not revised their schedules (45). Rural salaries rose also; the average salary, rural and urban combined, for teachers, principals, and supervisors was \$1599 in 1942-43, and was estimated at \$1725 in 1943-44 and \$1850 in 1944-45 (21).

Such increases, however, lagged so far behind those in other occupations that teachers as an economic group were at a great disadvantage (42, 48, 49). The Mississippi Education Association (34) found that teacher turnover between 1943-44 and 1945-46 was 56 percent, that 80 percent of those leaving the profession for other employment did so for an increase in pay, and that the average increase in pay was 47 percent. The 1945 graduates of Mississippi colleges who became teachers received beginning salaries that averaged \$1291 for women and \$1600 for men; nonteachers received an average of \$1800 for women and \$2400 for men.

In 1941 and 1942 costs of living rose faster than teachers' average salaries were rising, so that teachers lost ground in absolute purchasing power as well as in comparison with other groups (40). Wiseman (80) reported that cost of room and board for rural teachers in South Dakota increased 18 percent from 1943-44 to 1944-45. A Maryland (32) study of ten counties showed that average monthly expenditures were in excess of salary for the typical teacher. Teachers in Caddo Parish (9) and in Texas (72) cities likewise reported deficit spending. Urban teachers reporting to the NEA (47) in 1943-44 needed a median of 29.2 percent added to their salary to maintain a satisfactory plane of living in their communities; rural teachers needed 43.6 percent additional.

Almack's (2) report for the California Teachers Association questioned the accuracy of the Bureau of Labor Statistics index of cost of living as applied to teachers, and proposed higher figures for California. The NEA Research Division (40) took a more favorable view of the accuracy of the BLS index, discussed other indexes and their possible relation to teachers' salary questions, and analyzed the problem faced by local systems in adjusting salaries to changes in living costs.

The Wisconsin Education Association (78) reported several local plans for an automatic cost-of-living adjustment that would in part stabilize the value of the salary schedule by adding or subtracting amounts determined

by the level of the cost-of-living index. Descriptions of the plans adopted in Milwaukee (73) and Barrington, Rhode Island (29) were published; such a plan was recommended by Simpson (23, 67) for Meriden, Connecticut, and for Quincy, Massachusetts.

The Office of Price Administration (62) prepared several releases demonstrating the importance of price control after May 1943 in overcoming part of the loss in purchasing power undergone by teachers during 1941 and 1942 and making comparisons on these factors between World War I and World War II.

Littell's (28) article in the *Reader's Digest*, combining research and comment in challenging fashion, aroused widespread public interest. The National Opinion Research Center (55) reported that 48 percent of the American people thought that teachers were paid too little for the job they are expected to do; 31 percent thought they were paid about right; only 2 percent thought they were paid too much; and 9 percent were undecided.

Altho other section headings of this chapter do not mention the war directly, almost every type of study relating to teachers' salaries has been influenced by war conditions. State minimum standards have been raised; local salary schedules have been revised; there have been increased demands for information and statements of guiding principles.

### **Salaries Paid, in Relation to Other Factors**

Burke's (8) analysis of relationship between salaries and certain professional factors for about three thousand New York teachers showed that higher-paid teachers were more likely than lower-paid teachers to have master's degrees, to have attended summer school and extension courses, to have traveled extensively, and to have engaged in educational experimentation.

Hartkemeier (22) used analysis of variance to show the degree of relationship between salaries and sex, size of school, and experience for commercial teachers in Missouri.

Five studies (8, 22, 27, 54, 76) showed a tendency for higher levels of salaries to be associated with higher levels of preparation, except that teachers with low levels of preparation were found in several comparisons to have average salaries somewhat higher than teachers with bachelor's degrees. Experience is even more directly related to salaries than preparation, and a majority of the teachers with substandard preparation had been teaching for many years.

### **Issues in Salary Scheduling**

Recurring problems in salary scheduling continued to receive attention, such as differentials versus equal pay for men and women, the single-salary schedule for elementary and high schools, and recognition of merit in salary scheduling. Spears (68) and Tinsley (74) made analyses of the arguments pro and con on these and other salary issues.

Progress toward equal pay for the sexes and toward the single-salary schedule for elementary and high schools was reported by Davis (16, 17). The NEA Research Division (47) analyzed opinions of classroom teachers on salary recognition for superior teaching, on preparation schedules versus position schedules, and on salary differentials for men teachers and for dependency.

Cowen (15) reviewed the history of family allowance plans in salary scheduling for teachers and gave the arguments in refutation of the most common criticisms of the plan. Staffelbach (69) reported favorable reactions to family allowances from superintendents in communities where the plan was in effect.

Nelson (57) proposed that half of the teacher's salary should be dependent on the amount of progress shown by pupils on standardized tests of subjectmatter learning. School administrators, polled by the *Nation's Schools* (56), reported on preferred types of salary schedules; substantial majorities voted for schedules that include a merit feature.

Adjustments in making the transition from an old schedule to a new one were classified by the NEA Research Division (39) as being of two types: (a) nonretroactive, in which the teacher's salary on the old schedule determines his location on the new schedule; and (b) retroactive, in which full credit for previous experience is given in determining the teacher's placement on the new schedule. The New Jersey Education Association (59) reproduced three sample salary schedules which provided for the retroactive type of adjustment, providing for the transition over a five-year period.

### Research in Developing Local Salary Policy

Numerous articles and reports were published illustrating the use of research in greater or lesser degree in working out a salary policy for a single local school system. Teachers associations, administrative officials, consultants from outside the school system, and committees combining all of these groups were represented in these studies.

In Atlanta (4) and Dearborn (18), city-school research bureaus reported detailed analyses of salary practices in comparable school systems; in Duluth (19) the administrative staff made a historical study of salary policies in the community and reported principles and comparisons basic to a recommended new schedule.

Several general school surveys included sections on salaries. Among these giving comparisons and trends were the Boston survey, directed by Strayer (70); that for Tenafly, directed by Norton (61); and the Winchester survey by Fowlkes (20). The University of Chicago (11) surveying schools in Grand Rapids, and the University of Texas (30) reporting on the schools of Goose Creek, Texas, also included recommendations on salaries.

Consultant service was rendered by Willard S. Elsbree (7) in the local study of salaries in Brockton; by Alfred D. Simpson (23) in the Meriden



study; and by John C. Almack (64) in Portland, Oregon. The Quincy study was directed by Simpson (67).

In Caddo Parish (9) a committee was organized by the schoolboard to include representatives of local civic organizations and the school faculties. The Summit, New Jersey, (71) study was initiated by the teachers association, and the survey committee included several members of the the association, as well as a large number of members from community groups.

State education associations in Massachusetts (5), New Jersey (59), Pennsylvania (37), and Utah (75) drafted suggestions for the guidance of school districts in drafting salary schedules. All of these reports suggested research procedures. In Pennsylvania and Utah these reports were a follow-up to the adoption of new state minimum-salary schedules, which necessitated revision of many local schedules.

### Need for Research

Most of the work reported in this chapter was done to meet an immediate local, state, or national need—either for facts or for a decision on policy. This kind of need and this kind of research undoubtedly will continue. Research of a more reflective, analytical type is also needed to supplement this work done under pressure of time.

1. What are the long-time trends in salaries of various groups in the teaching profession, in relation to economic trends and in relation to each other?
2. What is the actual investment in preparation for teaching, and what is the relation of this investment to life earnings in teaching as compared with other occupational groups?
3. Could simple methods be devised, for use in local situations, for measuring the costs of appropriate standards of living for teachers?
4. What has been the economic effect of a changing balance of the sexes in occupations that have become increasingly feminized?
5. What are the advantages and disadvantages of some of the unusual salary policies that are found in only a few school systems?
6. What are the problems faced, and how are they solved, by state education departments in administering state minimum-salary laws?
7. What was the combined effect of salary increases, price trends, new income tax requirements, and war savings drives on the value of the spendable income of various groups of teachers during the war years?

A leisurely and tentative exploration is needed of questions such as these, that arouse the curiosity of the student in this field. Answers to these questions might or might not be helpful in deciding specific questions of salary policy—only research can tell.

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## CHAPTER X

### Teacher Tenure

A. S. BARR and WILLARD J. BRANDT

**T**ENURE refers to the manner in, or the period for which, anything is had and enjoyed. The literature of professional education contains studies of both the manner in which teaching positions are held and their durations. While there are studies of both types there seems to be a tendency to limit tenure studies to those that discuss the arrangements, regulations, and conditions under which teaching positions are held.

#### Teacher Turnover

The problem of turnover, which is one of long standing in the teaching profession, was made more acute by conditions arising during the war period. The United States Commissioner of Education reports, for example, from a sampling of 247 counties and 201 cities for October 1942 (18), that 5289 teachers in the counties and 3675 teachers in the cities were leaving their positions. The rate of teacher turnover for cities was 9.3 percent; for counties, 23.9 percent; and for the United States as a whole, 17.3 percent. For the entire public elementary and secondary school systems about 137,900 teachers were new to their positions in the fall of 1942; 166,857 for the school year 1943-44 and 127,364 for 1944-45. Among the reasons given for men leaving teaching were the following: 50.5 percent entered the armed forces, 14.7 percent took over other teaching jobs, 14.1 percent entered war industries, 4.9 percent entered federal employment, and 4.1 percent entered other positions; for the women: 28.7 percent took over other teaching jobs, 19.7 percent married, 8 percent retired, 7.1 percent entered war industries, and 5.4 percent entered federal employment. While the exit from the profession has slowed down somewhat with the termination of military activities the turnover and rate of leaving the profession has continued high. From a poll conducted by the *Nation's Schools* (6) in September 1944, 80 percent reported leaving the profession because of low salaries; 78 percent because of better opportunities elsewhere; and 38 percent because of insecurity of tenure. Pylman (15) reports that only 22.7 percent of the 1920 Michigan trained graduates were still in the profession in 1942. Studies of teacher turnover in other states reveal similar conditions.

#### New Legislation

The legislatures of Indiana, Kentucky, Michigan, Nebraska, and Tennessee enacted new tenure laws. Indiana in 1945 (2) enacted a law forbidding the contracting after May 1, 1947, of anyone over sixty-six years of age and providing for their dismissal upon reaching the age limit. Kentucky in 1944

(3) declared that the state must enter into limited or continuing contracts for the employment of all public school teachers. Michigan in 1945 (5) legislated that all contracts must be in written form and state the restrictions, work, and requirements of the individual under contract. This statute also provides that after a two-year-probationary period a continuing contract go into effect. Nebraska in 1943 (14) provided permanent tenure for all teachers in cities having a population of over 40,000. Nothing in the statute prevents the suspension of a permanent teacher. Tennessee in 1943 (17) legislated that a teacher's services shall continue unless a written notice from the board of education informs of the dismissal or failure of re-election at least thirty days prior to the close of the term.

### Court Decisions

The Committee on Tenure and the Research Division of the National Education Association have rendered annual reports on Court Decisions on Teacher Tenure since 1933. Their summaries of decisions reported in 1943 (8), 1944 (9), and 1945 (10), cover a large variety of cases. During the calendar year 1943, the appellate courts of seventeen states rendered thirty decisions regarding teacher tenure. During 1944 twenty-three decisions in fifteen states were rendered, and during 1945 thirty decisions in fourteen states. Their decisions related to such matters as the constitutionality of tenure laws, continuing contracts, annual contracts, assignments, procedure, types of positions covered by tenure laws, security rights, permanency, demotions, transfer, salaries, acquisition of tenure rights, leaves of absence, assignment, certification to eligibility lists, contract forms, suspension of tenure, dismissal of probationary teachers, retirement and various technical matters. The majority of cases have been in states with new laws needing specific interpretation and those providing for tenure after a probationary period.

### Summary

Two facts seem to stand out from a study of the literature relating to teacher tenure: (a) there is a very great amount of coming and going in the teaching profession; only a very small fraction of the teaching profession comes to be permanently associated with particular schools and communities; (b) progress seems to have been made during the three-year period covered by this report in developing means of providing increased security to deserving members of the profession.

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## CHAPTER XI

### Pensions and Retirement Pay

LEO M. CHAMBERLAIN

**R**ESearch on teacher retirement has been somewhat limited during the past three years. There has been considerable writing on the subject, as has been the case for previous periods, but much of what has appeared recently in the various educational journals could hardly be described as research. There would, in fact, be few studies worthy of review were it not for the efforts of the Research Division of the National Education Association. This review brings up to date corresponding summaries on pensions and retirement for previous periods (REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH for April 1931, June 1934, June 1937, June 1940, and June 1943).

#### The Present Status of Teacher Retirement

The Research Division of the National Education Association (8) summarized the current status of teacher retirement in regard to the number of local and state systems and the proportion of teachers with some form of old-age protection. It was shown that public school teachers were protected in 1945 by statewide joint-contributory retirement plans in forty-four states. Three additional states maintained statewide plans to which teachers did not contribute. Local retirement and pension plans were in operation in more than fifty cities and counties. The proportion of all public school teachers with protection under joint-contributory reserve systems was 98 percent. An additional 1 percent had protection under pension or non-contributory plans. A similar analysis for 1944 was made by the Research Division of the National Education Association in cooperation with the Department of Classroom Teachers (7). This study considered, in addition, the history of the retirement movement, types of pension and retirement plans, the establishment of a sound system, the essentials of a good plan, social security as a substitute, and the limitations of teacher retirement systems. It concluded with a series of questions for study and a checklist for evaluating a system. The study was directed to the classroom teachers of the country and adds little to the factual data available.

In cooperation with the National Council on Teacher Retirement the Research Division of the National Education Association made a statutory analysis of retirement provisions for teachers and other school employees (10). The section dealing with retirement plans for teachers covered the following aspects of existing state legislation: cash disbursement and reserve plans, teacher representation on retirement boards, actuarial valuations, administrative expenses, restrictions on investments, types of positions covered, voluntary and compulsory membership, employers' contributions, members' contributions, payments in cases of withdrawal, age

and service requirements, superannuation of service allowances, optional benefits, disability requirements and allowances, military leave, and the guarantee clause. A second section of the study covered retirement provisions for non-teaching employees. The analysis involved statewide plans for non-certificated employees, and permissive legislation making possible local coverage for such personnel.

In 1943 the Bureau of the Census and the Social Security Board made studies of the protection afforded state and local government employees by retirement systems (1, 16). The two reports were based upon the same data. The report of the Bureau of the Census was essentially tabular and dealt primarily with membership and fiscal statistics. The report published by the Social Security Board analyzed the legal provisions in addition to covering the membership and fiscal data. These studies are again referred to in a later section of this review.

Fischer (2) pointed out some of the principles that must be observed in any type of retirement plan if it is to be permanently successful. He emphasized the advantages which actuaries have cited for a current cost plan for governmental contributory systems. James (3) listed some of the considerations that should govern in determining the retirement age; and Morton (5) presented data on established salary ceilings upon which deductions may be based. Rosenfield (15) reviewed the activities of 1943 legislative sessions with respect to teacher retirement. He showed that thirty-seven of the forty-four legislatures in session that year enacted some legislation on this subject and briefly analyzed these enactments.

### Statistics on Teacher Retirement Systems

The Research Division of the National Education Association has continued its studies of membership and financial statistics of state and local teacher retirement systems (8). Membership statistics covered total enrollments, separations resulting from various causes, and data on memberships and withdrawals for 1943-44. The Pennsylvania system, which covers all school employees, was the largest in terms of members, with a total enrollment of 208,857 and an active membership of 81,314. From 34 to 96 percent of the members of the systems studied had terminated their enrollment in all state and local systems withdrawals exceeded retirements. Retirement was the cause of termination of membership of .8 percent of those active at the beginning of the membership year, death was the cause in the case of .2 percent, and withdrawals accounted for approximately 8 percent.

The financial statistics covered sources of income, an analysis of disbursements, general financial statistics, retirement allowances paid, and administrative expenses. Data were presented to show the amounts of income received from public sources, members' contributions, interest, and miscellaneous sources. "The principal purposes for which funds are used are for payment of retirement allowances and for refunds of accumulated



contributions of members who die or leave the service before retirement" (8, p. 36). A fiscal summary showed the ledger assets at the beginning of the year, the income during the year, total disbursements, and the ledger assets at the close of the year. Minimum, maximum, and average retirement allowances were presented for each system covered by the study. Administrative costs were analyzed in some detail and data were presented on the number of administrative workers and their salaries.

As indicated above, the Bureau of the Census and the Social Security Board prepared statistical studies of retirement systems operated by state and local governments (1, 16). These studies covered 1753 retirement programs, including state and local systems for teachers and other educational employees. The extent and character of coverage in governmental units of varying sizes were considered, and a detailed analysis was made of the principal features of the retirement systems considered. The teacher retirement plans covered by the study included forty state systems, sixty-four city plans, and eight county systems. It was shown that the coverage of school employees represented approximately half of the protection afforded by all state and local plans. Benefits to school retirants were, on the average, lower than those paid by systems covering other governmental employees. Of the 158,000 beneficiaries receiving monthly payments from state and local retirement systems, 74 percent had been retired for age or service, 10 percent were classified as disabled, and 16 percent were survivors. The monthly benefits averaged \$77 for beneficiaries retired for age, \$59 for disabled beneficiaries, and \$54 for survivors. Both of these studies (1, 16) have been reviewed in some detail by the Research Division of the National Education Association. These reviews appeared as *Special Bulletin No. 30, Social Security and Teachers, October 3, 1944*. (Mimeo.)

Morton (5) studied thirty-seven state systems operating on a joint-contributory basis to determine the top salary upon which members' contributions may be based. He found that nineteen of the thirty-eight systems have no ceilings. The maximum salaries from which deductions may be made ranged in the other eighteen states from \$2000 to \$7500.

### Teacher Retirement and Social Security

The Research Division of the National Education Association (9) studied the contributions that might be made and the benefits that might be available to certain typical teachers under existing state retirement systems and under federal social security. Five examples were cited. It was pointed out that care must be exercised in interpreting such comparisons since the two types of plans are different as to basic purposes. The Research Division (6) also reviewed the proposals that have been made for including teachers under the Social Security Old-Age and Survivors' Insurance. Four types of bills were analyzed and consideration was given to pending legislation and to possible developments. Kimbler (4) also summarized the changes that have been proposed in the Social Security program and discussed their bearing on the teaching profession.

### Retirement in Colleges and Universities

In four articles (11, 12, 13, 14) Robbins examined several of the important problems associated with the old-age protection of members of college and university faculties. One of these articles (11) dealt with the necessity for the reexamination of existing systems and the methods to be followed in making modifications to care for changed conditions. Emphasis was placed on the effect on the size of retirement benefits of such factors as the changed purchasing power of the dollar, reduced interest rates, and new data with respect to longevity. Methods of making modifications were illustrated by typical cases. In a second article (12) attention was directed to the advantages of annuity contracts with insurance companies as opposed to an annuity business operated by the institution. Particular stress was laid on the mobility possible when the contributor has his own annuity contract with a commercial organization. Robbins (13) also analyzed the reasons that institutions frequently give for not establishing old-age protection for their faculties. He listed the questions that should be asked about existing plans and emphasized the need for a periodic check-up of every system. In the fourth article referred to above (14) attention is directed to the elements of a sound retirement plan for an institution of higher learning, the values of such a plan, the importance of mobility without loss of benefits, deterrents to the inauguration of retirement systems, and responsibility for retirement planning. Arguments against a uniform retirement age were advanced by Withers (17).

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## CHAPTER XII

### Teacher Certification

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

**T**HE LITERATURE since June 1943 pertaining to the certification of teachers can be grouped within four major divisions: (a) current state requirements for teacher certificates, (b) improving requirements for teacher certificates, (c) emergency certificates for teachers, and (d) status of reciprocity among states regarding teacher certificates.

#### Current State Requirements for Teacher Certificates

Information concerning the status of state requirements for teacher certificates has appeared in three forms. The first is a description of the requirements for a single state issued by the state department of education. Such bulletins describe the requirements in great detail. A second form is an individual article which describes in less technical fashion the specific requirements of a particular state. Descriptive articles of this kind have been written concerning most of the states and are typified by the ones regarding California (5), Illinois (13), Kentucky (15), and Louisiana (18). The third form used for presenting state requirements is the digest of such requirements for all states. This type of digest has been presented annually by Woellner and Wood (29), for the past ten years.

#### Suggestions for Improving Requirements for Teacher Certificates

The present status of requirements for teacher certificates is not equally satisfactory to all educators and laymen. Some of the adverse criticisms, however, are in no sense constructive. Several articles have appeared which offer constructive suggestions. The criteria for improving the teacher certification requirements for Texas by Adams (1) have broader implication and are presented here as summarized by the reviewer.

1. Certification rules must be flexible.
2. In teacher training more emphasis should be placed upon non-course training such as travel, social welfare work, etc.
3. We must be knowledge-minded and give less hero-worship to degrees.
4. Completion of a required course should not make a person eligible for a certificate, but comprehensive written examinations should be taken.
5. No more life certificates should be issued.
6. Extension of certificates must not be on the basis of college training alone, but other training experiences should count.
7. The bachelor's degree should be the first prerequisite for elementary teachers' licenses and the master's degree for high-school certificates.
8. In elementary education a distinction between primary and intermediate teaching is suggested.

9. There should be no high-school blanket certification; rather individual certificates for each subject taught in high school should be substituted.
10. Administrators should hold administrators' certificates based on two years of college study beyond the bachelor's degree and several years of teaching experience.

Comparable improvement is suggested for administrative certificates (19).

Suggestions for the improvement of teacher certification requirements are both direct and indirect. The references are direct suggestions. Attention however should be focused upon three publications which most clearly imply improvement of standards for certification of teachers tho they may be considered of rather indirect approach. These publications are:

COMMISSION ON TEACHER EDUCATION. *Teachers for Our Times*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944. (A statement of purposes by the Commission on Teacher Education.)

COOPER, RUSSELL M., and OTHERS. *Better Colleges—Better Teachers*. Distributed by Macmillan Co., 1944. (Published by the North Central Association Committee on the Preparation of High School Teachers in Colleges of Liberal Arts.)

TROYER, MAURICE E., and PACE, C. ROBERT. *Evaluation in Teacher Education*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944. (Prepared for the Commission on Teacher Education.)

### Emergency Certificates for Teachers

The severe shortage of fully qualified teachers in certain subjects and in various parts of the United States during the war period caused a number of states to issue emergency certificates to persons not fully equipped to meet the regular requirements for teacher certificates. This situation has been frequently commented upon during the past several years and typical of the observations which were recorded are the references in the bibliography (2, 4, 7, 11, 20, 21, 24). Blyler (4) feels that the teacher shortage has been caused by the lack of understanding that teaching has been a war job equal to any because of its paramount importance to the nation. He states that the attractive high wages of war industries and the low prestige of the teaching profession also have been important contributing factors. Richardson (24) states that it is believed that there have been more than enough legally certified teachers in Michigan; however, temporary certificates were a necessity because of the low salaries, community demands, lack of political freedom, and uncertainty of continuing tenure involved in the available teaching positions. In the article by Donohue (7) there is a discussion of the fundamental issue: What is to become of the teachers with temporary permits? He declares that the state policies on this issue must be formulated and announced to overcome the danger of being pressured into blanket certifications. It will be necessary to determine which of the emergency teachers who wish to remain in the profession are competent or can be made competent with additional training or assistance.



## The Status of Reciprocity Among States Regarding Teacher Certificates

The qualities of a good teacher know no state boundaries. Requirements to obtain a certificate to teach, however, show considerable variation among the several states. The individual states have been most reluctant in the immediate past to honor each other's teacher certificates. Reciprocity among the states regarding teacher certificates was practiced to a limited extent during the war because of the shortage of teachers. Emens (8) hopes that the experiences thus derived will have a permanent effect upon reciprocal practices among the states and he (9) feels that within the group of states which comprise the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools real progress will be made.

Lagerberg (17) points out that earlier in the history of the United States a large number of states had made provisions for full reciprocity. Currently, however, two distinct types of hurdles have interfered in reciprocal relations. These are:

1. The "direct, specific requirement aimed to bar out-of-state teachers," such as requirements for resident study, course requirements in state history, etc., and
2. The "indirect restriction which operates in several ways," such as different requirements in practice teaching, in professional training, in the number of hours of course credit, in pension systems, and in the natural inclination of local employing officials to hire local people in preference to those from more distant areas.

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## CHAPTER XIII

### Legal Status of Teachers

RICHARD B. THIEL

THE LEGAL STATUS of the teacher necessarily depends on the nature of his contract, his certification, and on legislation, federal as well as state statutes, by which the conditions of his employment are regulated. Modifications to fit local conditions are often written into a teacher's contract. The validity and legality of all these provisions rest on many decisions of the state courts as last resort, occasionally supplemented by an important ruling of the United States Supreme Court. This part of the review was greatly handicapped by the suspension of the publication of the *Yearbooks of School Law* previously published by the American Council on Education. However, the excellent articles in the *Nation's Schools*, the *American School Board Journal*, *School Executive*, and *Clearing House* compensated somewhat for this lack. Much valuable material was found in the *Education Digest* and in reports of the Research Division of the Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom of the NEA and also in the reports and bulletins of the United States Office of Education, as well as in recent issues of *School Life* whose publication was resumed in September 1945.

#### Recent Developments and Laws Affecting Teacher Status

The introduction of nursery schools financed by public funds has injected new issues of certificates and legal status of school personnel thus employed (5). Many such new teachers with qualifications not fully adequate had to be employed extralegally as assistant teachers. The employment of so many teachers not fully qualified or sufficiently competent has necessitated a more efficient organization for training in service, according to Antell (2), who also revealed a much larger membership of teachers in teachers' unions or their equivalent.

Many boards of education are prejudiced against such affiliations and register their sentiments by their refusal to re-employ such affiliates. Some states like Wisconsin have so-called "Yellow Dog" statutes to prevent this kind of discrimination, others have not. This has resulted in discussion and controversy relative to the rights of teachers to join unions, or even whether such membership is ethical or professional, tho perhaps legal. Much of this discussion has taken on considerable heat (5) (16) (19) (20) (32) (38) and (39) as well as a tendency toward ironical statement. As legislation tends to lag in situations like this, local boards will continue to use their own discretion with resulting litigation sponsored by group action.

Another issue that has been raised relates to alleged discrimination against Negro teachers. In states where race segregation in schools is

prevalent facilities for training teachers are often grossly inadequate resulting in the employment of teachers lower in status (12). Similarly there has been a tendency toward lower salaries for Negro teachers not sustained by the federal court (45). On the other hand, the right of faculty members and office employees at Howard University to join unions and bargain for pay increases was recognized by the board of trustees and sets a unique precedent (67).

Among the peculiar situations affecting teacher status because of the war is the case of a conscientious objector who was dismissed for writing to a former pupil who did not register for selective service "on his courageous and idealistic stand against war." Upon suit to compel reinstatement the court held: "Where the statute is silent as to cause it is left to the tribunal having jurisdiction," in this case the board of education (63). Further legislative gains in teacher status include authorized group life insurance for teachers in Louisiana, premiums payable out of public funds and in part deductible from salary payments (61). The amendment of the Hatch Act by Congress restores schoolmen's rights to participate in elections, but still "forbids teachers from being members of any party that advocates overthrow of our constitutional form of government" (55). This raises the question of the legality of a teacher's membership in a radical communist party. Eight states have permitted retired teachers, altho five specify that there shall be no additional increments for retirement benefits. Nebraska provides for retirement at the age of seventy, permissible at 60, whereas, New Mexico has eliminated compulsory retirement at seventy (59). California has provided for five days of minimum sick leave per year cumulative to twenty-five days (59) and Wisconsin five days leave cumulative to thirty days and grants leaves of absence for military and war work (53).

### Legal Status of Married Women Teachers

There has been a decided tendency to raise the general status of married women teachers legally as well as professionally (47). A general relaxation of marriage restrictions (69), and full recognition of the legal status of married women teachers (41) is deemed to be in the best interests of the schools. That much of this broader view is traceable to a greater degree of affiliation with union groups cannot be doubted (6) (19). Written-in restrictions relative to marriage may prevail; it is clear that pressure on legislation for teacher status has been eased because of the rapid release of teachers in service (50). Mention is made of an interesting Louisiana case relative to an attempted dismissal of a woman teacher with tenure status on maternity leave. The court ruled this as insufficient cause as it was not among the causes listed in the statute for legal dismissal (49).

A recent poll of five hundred representative school administrators constituting a good sampling for the entire nation revealed that 47 percent believed that the marital status of the teacher was relatively unimportant

(45). Recognition of higher salaries for married teachers because of dependency allowances was adjudged not illegal by the court (43).

### **Legal Status of Teachers Based on Contract Provisions**

Wisconsin was among the states to adopt a continuing contract provision. All teachers are given notice on or before April first of the school year of employment of the renewal or refusal of their contract by majority vote of the full membership of the board. Failure to take definite action automatically extends the contract for a full year (54). All teachers will find the recent bulletin of the NEA Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom (51) a most important contribution clarifying their legal status and their understanding of principles governing teachers' contracts. Explanation of legal capacities of parties, expositions of what constitutes offer and acceptance and rules of interpretation are given in direct and clear terms understandable by anyone. Technical terms and specifically legal phraseology are carefully avoided.

Rapid shifting of population in war times is reflected in protecting clauses written into contracts by local boards of education. The tendency had been toward the adoption of a simple form contract for use on a statewide basis. For reasons already mentioned there has crept in the inclusion of resignation restrictions, specific payment for release or breach a flat deposit, bonuses for fulfillment and payment of actual replacement costs in case of resignation (70). Courts have held that it is legal to insert into the contract a provision that teachers forfeit a part of their last month's salary if they leave during a school year on insufficient notice and that they are obligated for a reasonable amount for breach of contract (60). In a recent copy of a NEA Research Bulletin a very sane appeal is made relative to the improvement and clarity of teachers' contracts, the elimination of contractual restrictions relative to marriage, church affiliation, and group membership. Causes for dismissal should be specified and clear (57).

### **Legal Status of Teachers under Tenure Provisions**

The interpretation of a teacher's right under tenure is subject to the wording of the statute. A decision by the New Jersey Supreme Court January 22, 1943, held in line with former decisions that New Jersey tenure laws do not grant teachers tenure on contract status but only on legislative status subject to legislative change and that legislation relative to salaries is a mere declaration of policy and subject to abrogation in the public interest (56).

In a Minnesota case the Duluth Board of Education was virtually upheld in its action of non-reappointment of certain teachers under tenure status and eligible for retirement but with no provision for compulsory retirement. The teachers involved alleged predetermination of their dismissal on



account of age alone and contended that such was therefore illegal. The court granted no relief but remanded the case back to the board recognizing their power of discretion (56).

The question as to whether a tenure teacher could be required to reside within the school district in which she was employed under a board of education rule to that effect recently arose in Pennsylvania. The superintendent undertook to find a place of residence but was resisted by the teacher who requested leave of absence for a year, which was not granted, to accompany her soldier husband. Upon her departure the board brought charges of willful and persistent neglect and non-compliance with the residence rule. The teacher appealed to the state superintendent who ordered reinstatement on compliance with residence rule within sixty days unless not obtainable. The court reversed the action of the superintendent and sustained the board in the enforcement of a reasonable regulation (60). This decision was in line with an earlier California case.

### **The Relation of Certification to Legal Status**

The contention is often made that certification sets up the legal status of the teacher which is true to the extent that without a license a teacher has no legal status for recovery of services no matter how efficiently performed. This issue, passed on so many times previously, recently arose again in Nebraska with the usual ruling (60). In a professional sense certification should be in effect the approach to a total program of education rather than of an individual to meet certain quantitative requirements in separation from degree requirements (30). However, legally the reference must be to the individual requirements. To require the teacher to know something about school law has been treated lightly by some (29). Nevertheless, the absence of this information has not been instrumental in protecting a teacher from the consequences of expensive litigation as illustrated by a rather interesting Tennessee case. The teacher in question, a British alien, held an unlimited certificate and had taught six years, sufficient to attain tenure status. The board in the meantime passed a rule in line with a state statute prescribing American citizenship and notified the teacher of termination of employment unless legal requirement could be met. The teacher brought suit contending that being in possession of a state certificate and enjoying permanent tenure status he had acquired legal status which the Supreme Court of Tennessee denied and dismissed the case (60).

The crying need for teachers in the present emergency has made necessary the granting of many emergency teaching permits for elementary school teachers, which have the force of temporary licenses (7).

An interesting observation relative to the extension of the state's control over education is made in the recent Pennsylvania statute authorizing the State Board of Vocational Education to require licenses for private trade schools and to establish supervisory regulations over their personnel (64).

Recently Texas private business schools objected to the requirement of licensing of teachers by the state on the basis of the classification of such schools. The court ruled that this matter is entirely within the discretion of the state superintendent under statutory sanction (60). The difference in status of teachers in private and public schools has had a tendency to disappear.

A complete study of requirements for certification of teachers and administrators of elementary schools, secondary schools, and junior colleges has recently been completed at the University of Chicago (73). Similarly a study of status of teacher education (9) and of wartime changes in teacher certification (26) has recently appeared. A need for more reciprocity among the states to take care of the migrations from state to state and of a better conception of the professional and human relations involved by a more liberal, (67) legal policy of certification is among the problems to be met (33) (37) (40). Some have gone so far as to suggest a policy of federal certification.

### **Legal Relations Arising Out of Miscellaneous Causes**

It is significant to note the recognition of the Pennsylvania Legislature of the rights of Pennsylvania teachers to secure credit under the retirement law for out-of-state teaching service (14).

The compulsory retirement of a teacher for defective hearing rests upon "the legal determination imposed by statute upon designated officials," in this case the Retirement Board whose ruling was sustained by the court (60). The effort to remove Superintendent Homer W. Anderson in excess of the authority of the board enjoined by a citizen's committee was forestalled by the unanimous decision of the Court of Appeals (3). Litigation following dismissal of teachers occasionally brings up matters relative to the civil and criminal liabilities of teachers (10) (11).

A teacher's course of action is often hampered by the restrictions that surround him. For example, "There are no sections in the New York State education laws that would dispel the fear of disciplinary action, or dismissal even tho the educator is saved from money judgment for personal injuries or property damages." (42). On the other hand, it is said that there is need of getting citizens to support schools thru the efforts of enterprising teachers (1).

In the wake of a changing federal relation to education (52) and in view of the momentous changes in human relations on the international scale, it is not amiss to consider "blueprints for a world school system" (65). In contemplating the changes in status involved in a program of exchange of students and teachers with Latin American republics and other foreign nations teacher status takes on an international coloring (24). The legal aspects of such a situation demand a thoro revision of our own laws and a new outlook in terms of the United Nations Organization (36, 23).

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## CHAPTER XIV

### Social Status of the Teacher

HENRY LESTER SMITH

**R**EVUE OF RESEARCH and publications relative to the social status of the teacher for the period 1940 thru 1942 indicated a marked reduction in the number of scientific investigations in this aspect of the teacher's life (33, 34). The majority of available publications were subjective rather than objective and dealt for the most part with a special phase of the social status or with another field of education from which aspects of social status could be inferred. The trends were attributed to the war situation. The effects of the war situation on education were increasingly manifested during the period of this report, 1942 thru 1945. Teachers and students of education whether graduate or undergraduate continued to enter the armed forces. Consequently, research in education and teacher training dropped. Educators were faced with major problems demanding immediate attention, and little or no time was available for study of such problems as the social status of the teacher. Objective investigations were fewer than in 1940-1942 but many subjective experience reports urged teachers to greater efforts in bearing their burdens (12, 37).

Data available on the social status of the teacher tend to group around one or another of the three following topics: (a) the teacher's life and personality; (b) training, tenure, and finances; (c) the teacher's relation to the community.

#### The Teacher's Life and Personality

Many authors held the opinion that the social status of the teacher is determined by the traits, character, and personality of the teacher (11, 19, 46). McPherson (27) reported some of the occupational habits which tend to give teachers a special personality. He found that teachers become careless in personal appearance. They are too often content to go along without displaying any originality in planning or conducting their work. They develop an exaggerated feeling of importance which induces a lack of consideration for the pupil as well as for adults. They become critical of the shortcomings of others and fail to recognize their own, and any adult who is "bossy" does not appeal either to youths or to adults. However, Vaeth (43) reported that a teacher who possesses a good academic background and a knowledge of subjectmatter together with an interest in students as individuals, who has a pleasing personality and a sense of equity and justice, and who uses self-control and displays consideration and tact will be regarded as a successful person.

Grinnell (18) reported remarks he had heard that illustrated further how the layman's opinion of the teacher was determined by the conduct

of the teacher. There are those successful classroom teachers who are capable but who refuse to expand into the community life, not because they devote all their time to classes, but because they are not interested in other people.

There is evidence that a small minority of persons change their opinions of teachers during postschool years. Bryan (7) asked 825 adult judges to select two of the best and two of the poorest teachers they had ever had, and to rate them as they would have rated them when they sat in the classrooms. The answers indicated that 90 percent of the teachers now considered best received the highest or next to the highest rating in retrospection. Less than 2 percent of the poorest teachers were credited with producing excellent results in retrospection. The desired qualities of a teacher are sincerity, impartiality, fairness, friendliness, cheerfulness, industry, good judgment, and ability to give clear explanations. The best way for a teacher to predict how pupils will feel about him in later years is to learn how they feel when they are in his classes. Bryan (7) concluded that the belief that maturity will cause individuals to look back and see teacher merit not appreciated in school days is largely an illusion.

Teachers in increasing numbers are joining professional organizations on their own initiative and subscribing to professional literature in order to improve personally as well as professionally (2). But, since some teachers do not manifest such interest and may teach as many as twenty-five or more years without making the effort to keep up to date in their field, he believes there is need for a vigorous organized program of in-service training.

The experience background of teachers in training in four state teachers colleges, as examined by Partridge (29), varied greatly among both men and women, with men having a slightly broader background. There were many who possessed a shallow verbal understanding of many things they would be expected to teach. Without a deliberate attempt to enrich deficient background, their entry into the teaching profession would produce several undesirable results.

In teachers as in others, reported Stewart (36), there are varying degrees of maladjustment, and the disturbance reveals itself in varying ways. A satisfactory adjustment of problems is essential to the teacher's happiness, and is of vital concern to those who come in contact with the teacher. Symonds (39) analyzed the autobiographies of fifty teachers to ascertain their needs and the factors responsible for development of these needs which, in turn, caused the individuals to select teaching. Symonds' (38) investigations further revealed that teachers were not able to formulate their problems clearly or to recognize and define them. In meeting the difficulties they recognized, the teachers took action by asserting their independence or by gaining an insight into and a better understanding of persons with whom they had to deal. Others resorted to hard work and to taking on new interests. Symonds advised teachers with problems to secure the aid of a friend or, preferably, a trained counselor.

In serious cases Symonds (40) suggested the following programs as a means of identifying and correcting the situations adversely affecting the teacher personally as well as professionally: (a) undergo a complete and thoro physical examination; (b) give constant attention to personal appearance; (c) adjust activities to keep up enthusiasm, interest, and satisfaction of accomplishment; (d) adjust living arrangements to be hospitable, wholesome, and self-respecting—to be those of a normal family; (e) use vacation periods for rest, relaxation, and recuperation; (f) undertake a program of professional study to increase competence and maintain morale; (g) develop avocational interests; (h) expand social and professional relationships.

In the final analysis Heikkinen (20) said that the status of a teacher is largely the teacher's responsibility, and that status is enjoyed or deserved, or else something would have been done about it.

### Training, Tenure, and Finances

The aforementioned topics are treated elsewhere in this issue of the REVIEW. However, they do provide clues to the social status of the teacher, and for that reason mention of them is made in this chapter. Articles dealing with the effects of the war situation in teacher training, tenure, and salaries continued to appear during the period covered by this report. The treatises were concerned with obtaining replacements. As Kane (23) reported, the sudden desertion of the educational ranks by teachers going into industry indicates an unsatisfactory teaching setup (40). With the end of the war we will see the reconversion of the schools to peacetime status. Joyal (22) was of the opinion that after a period of readjustment there will then be a surplus of teachers, and that the selection and placement of them will present an opportunity with which educators must deal both boldly and wisely.

Many young people do not think of teaching as a desirable profession, and Stevens (35) reported their reasons for this attitude as follows: (a) education departments are often the weakest division in educational institutions; (b) salaries of teachers are not comparable to those of persons in other necessary services requiring the same or less professional training; (c) too many restrictions are placed on the social life of teachers; (d) too many teachers consider their work primarily as a means of making a living rather than as a profession; (e) childhood experiences with teachers have not inspired young people to enter the teaching profession.

The war situation not only seriously reduced the enrolment in teachers colleges but set up a heavy turnover within the teaching profession. The United States Office of Education (42), in a preliminary tabulation of reports from 338 city and county school systems giving the reasons why 11,000 teachers left the school system they were in between June and October 1942, reported one-half the men entered the armed forces and ap-

proximately half the women left either to accept a better position in another school system or to get married. Almost 30 percent of the women teachers who left went to a better paying teaching position but only 15 percent of the men who left went to a better teaching position. Teachers moved from rural and small city schools to larger city school systems. War industries drew heaviest from the larger city systems. The data further revealed that only a small percent of teachers stay in rural and small city systems until they retire, but in cities of 30,000 or more population, positions are considered by teachers as satisfactory for a life career.

The schools in Indiana (21) to August 1944, had suffered heavy teacher withdrawals ranging proportionally from 6 percent in cities of 100,000 population to 21 percent in cities under 5000 population. The breakdown of reasons for leaving the former positions are similar to those reported by the Office of Education (42).

### **The Teacher's Relations to the Community**

Publications relating to the relations of the teacher to the community stressed two themes: one urging the teacher to become an active participant in community affairs (1, 8, 28, 45), and the other appealing to the community to grant teachers the same freedom in their personal lives as it permits other professional people (3, 16, 44).

Thomson (41) urged teachers to expand beyond the four walls of the classroom and to enrich their lives. After all, teachers are adults, and it becomes an adult to work with adults. Some opposition may be encountered, but each member of a community, including the teacher, must assume responsibility in civic affairs and cooperate with groups whose aim is to improve health, social, and economic conditions in the conservation of human and material resources. However, Bain (5) cautioned that teaching is the teacher's first consideration; civic affairs constitute an additional duty. This situation imposes upon the teacher the responsibility of being efficient on two levels. As teachers, they must work with young people, shaping the experiences children have and helping them interpret these experiences; as adult citizens, teachers must work with other adults in contributing to civic affairs as well as take advantage of opportunities to further their own work. Therefore, said Lyon (25) the teacher must not only radiate inspiration but must also seek it from others. Champlin (9) contended that the liberally educated teacher is capable of continuous growth. He said further that the liberally educated teacher recognizes there can be no substitute for scholarship in the school. Scholarship, personal contacts with informational experts, and sincere habits of profound study are prerequisites to liberalizing and stirring instruction of the master teacher. Teachers need both a professional and a liberal education.

Phillips (30) reported that the present-day tasks of schools are greater than they were fifty years ago as the schools are accepting the performance

of services which were at one time considered the responsibility of the home, the church, or the community. More active participation of teachers in educational planning, as members of school staffs and of professional organizations, would result in an improved program of education and greater respect for the importance of the school and teachers. The schools are taking an increased responsibility, said Bruce (6), for promoting understanding of and respect for the complex economic life of the community, and can be a very important factor in democratization of rural-urban relations.

Di Michael (13) recommended a definite program to improve the effectiveness and status of the school in the community, as follows: (a) encourage parent-teacher conferences; (b) invite parents to serve on school committees; (c) expand the school library to include books for the whole family; (d) cooperate with community agencies maintained by private, public, or church funds; (e) inaugurate a program of adult education.

Discol (14) outlined a program for making the parent-teacher conference effective and Ryan (32) reported instances of the effectiveness of providing reference books for parents. Gans (15) believed that teacher status has been too commonly thought of in terms of salary, tenure, and retirement. Such needs are admittedly very real, but there are other factors necessary to obtain the status of satisfaction.

Gelanis (17) recognized the fact that persons are leaving teaching for industry because of more money, but he claimed many other normal and healthy persons are deserting the teaching profession to escape the dual code of conduct imposed upon them by the community. Kittle and Shannon (24) investigated the status of community teachers in Indiana. The questionnaire method was employed, and returns were sufficient to warrant belief that data were representative of rural and village schools thruout the state. Approximately one-fourth of the teachers of township schools were weekly or daily commuters; daily commuters outnumbered weekly commuters three to one. Commuting was more widespread in 1942-1943 than in prewar years. Commuting high-school teachers were twice as numerous as commuting elementary school teachers. In general, the daily commuters were single persons. Commuters remained in the profession as long as non-commuters, and tenure played no significant part in commuters' status. In two-thirds of the townships the public was indifferent toward the commuter. Their indifference was demonstrated further by their toleration of commuting, the teachers having commuted long enough to try out the public on the matter. In teaching, the commuter was rated as effective as the non-commuter, but in participation in school functions he was rated less favorably and in community functions much less favorably.

The McNair (26) report discussed the social status of teachers in England. Bagley (4), in commenting on the McNair Report, said that the enhancement of the social status of teachers in the lower schools is a prime condition of significant progress in public education, and that the



need of higher salaries cannot be minimized as contributing to this end. He pointed out, however, that there are reasons other than financial for shunning the teaching profession.

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